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# The Courier

UNESCO
ARCHIVES

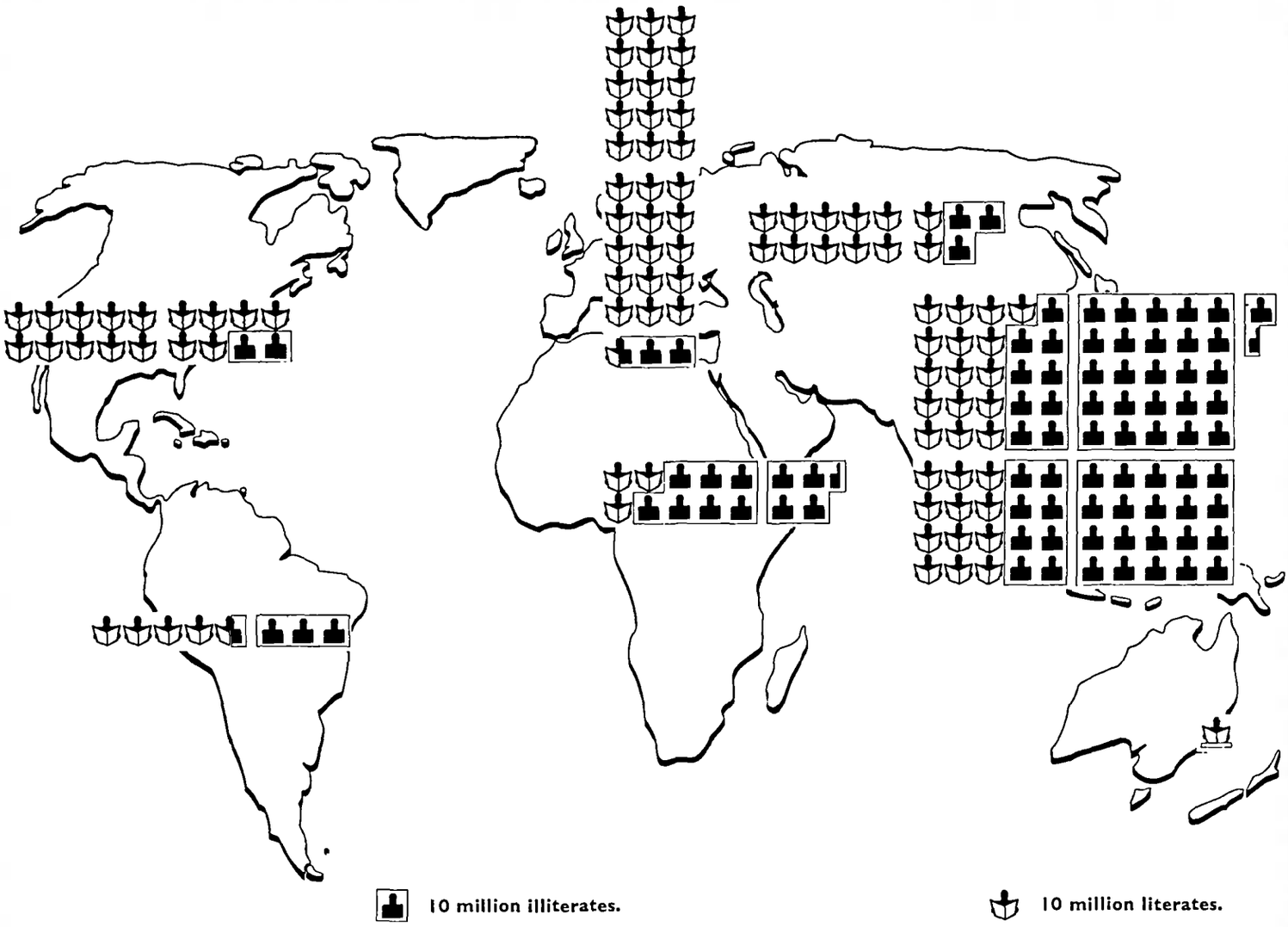
UNESCO

N° 3
1954
(7th year)
Price: 15 cents (U.S.)
Sevenpence (U. K.)
30 francs (France)

*In this issue:*

**Freedom of Information**

**20th century casualty?**



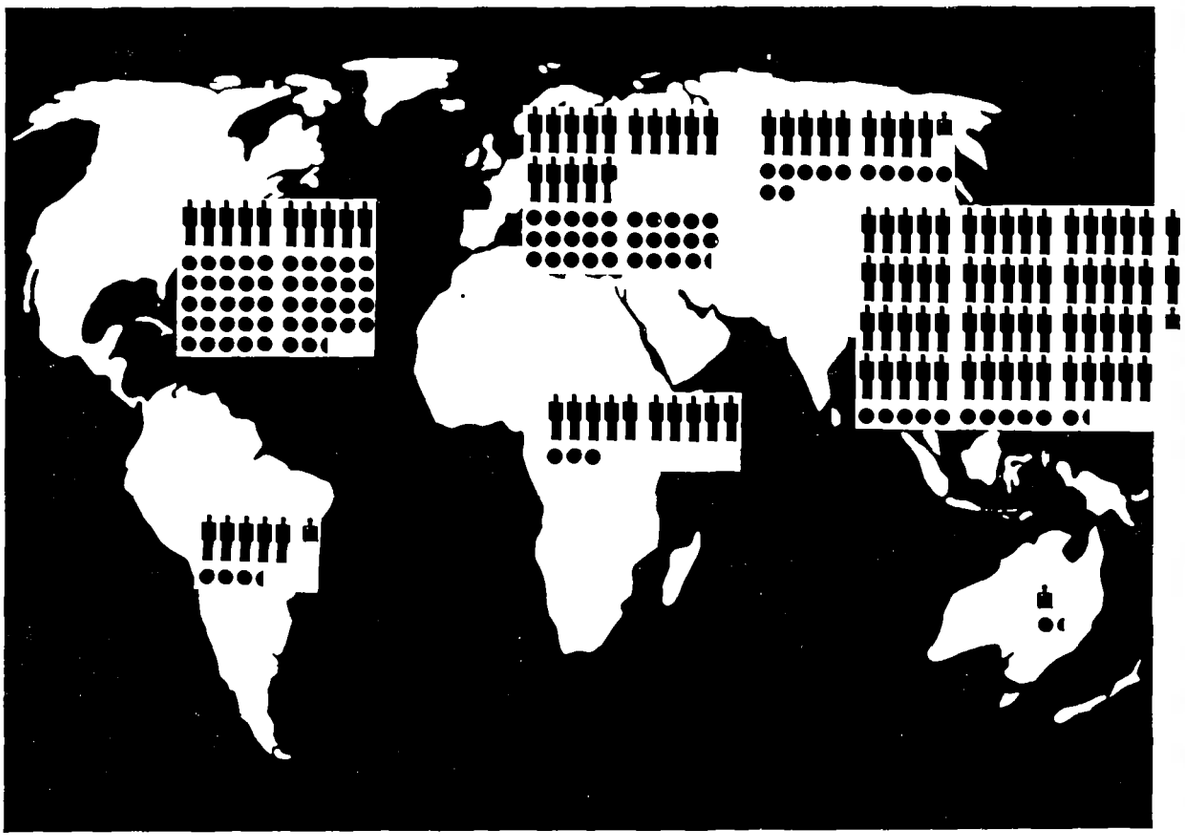
10 million illiterates.

10 million literates.

# IGNORANCE AND POVERTY GO HAND IN HAND

In spite of all that our modern age can offer to educate and inform, illiteracy is still the lot of something like half the world's people. This is shown by the upper of these two pictographs, covering by continents the proportion of illiterates ten years of age and over. This fact is directly linked to the question of freedom of information; it means that in vast continents like Asia and Africa and in certain regions of Latin America only a minute proportion of the people are capable of reading a newspaper. For the millions isolated by ignorance, the right to information is lacking in reality. For most of these people, too, as the second pictograph illustrates, many of the necessities of life are lacking. Here as shown the total income and population for the continents. Together the two graphics confirm the basic truth that poverty is born of ignorance and breeds ignorance in its turn.

*Both pictographs were prepared by the Nederlandse Stichting voor Statistiek, The Hague.*



20 million persons.

● $5,000 million

# The Courier

UNESCO

NUMBER 3 - 1954
7th YEAR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**Published monthly by**
The Department of Mass Communication of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

**Editorial Offices**
Unesco, 19, Avenue Kleber, Paris 16, France.

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Annual subscription rates of THE COURIER : 6/-; $ 1.50 or 300 French frs.

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*This month's theme*

## FREEDOM OF INFORMATION

**Telegraph and telephone lines running endlessly beside the highways symbolize our modern means of mass communication. But in many lands there are gaps in the world network of communications. People, denied the right to information, know little or nothing about the rest of the world. With other U.N. specialized agencies Unesco works to promote "the free flow of ideas by word and image". (Photo R. Viollet)**

OVER wide areas of the earth, hundreds of millions of people lack adequate food, clothing and shelter. Two-thirds of mankind, living in conditions that have changed little in the past 2,000 years, share few, if any of the advances enjoyed by the more fortunate nations.

A basic cause of such mass poverty is the lack of those instruments and skills which could enable people in economically underdeveloped areas to raise their living standards. Poverty is bred of ignorance and breeds more ignorance in its turn — a vicious circle which perpetuates man's agelong plight.

Modern communication is the key that can unlock the door to our rich heritage of knowledge. For one half of the world, advances in press, radio and film have made possible the instantaneous transmission of information and ideas through the written and spoken word or the visual image. For the other half of the world, the door remains shut.

Inequalities in the sharing of the facilities and techniques of communication represent a formidable restriction on freedom of information. This freedom, the United Nations General Assembly has declared, "is a fundamental human right and the touchstone of all the freedoms to which the United Nations is consecrated." The United Nations and its Specialized Agencies have sought not only to inform people everywhere of the meaning of that right, but to translate it into a reality.

When Unesco was founded in 1945, the States signing its Constitution declared that they were "agreed and determined to develop and increase the means of communication between their peoples and to employ these means for the purposes of mutual understanding and a truer and more perfect knowledge of each others' lives." Promotion of "the free flow of ideas by word and image" was set forth as a fundamental task of Unesco.

Other Specialized Agencies are likewise helping in this objective. Members of the International Telecommunication Union, representing the world's telegraph, telephone and radio systems, have pledged themselves to facilitate "relations between peoples by means of efficient telecommunication services" and to promote the "unrestricted transmission of news" by those means. Members of the Universal Postal Union, who are directly concerned with the collection and distribution of news by mail, similarly have for their object "the organization and improvement of the various postal services, and to further within this sphere the growth of international collaboration."

In this issue, *The Courier* is devoting a full section to the flow of news. Writers deal with the importance of news in our daily life, describe how it is collected and presented in the press and discuss prospects of ensuring fuller and better coverage of world events. In all these phases the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies have a vital interest.

The diverse forms of mass communication provide an unrivalled vehicle for the flow of ideas and, properly used, can do much to help men achieve self-development and understand one another. Poverty and ignorance are no longer domestic problems. They are the ills of the entire globe which all nations can together combat and so achieve — in the words of the United Nations Charter — "better standards of life in larger freedom".

Here is a problem that no teacher — whatever his subject — and that no alert citizen — whatever his trade or profession — can afford to ignore.

INFORMATION is becoming more and more an essential part of our everyday lives. This is a development which springs from the age of industrial change in which we live — for under the impact of mechanical progress our horizon has widened to such an extent that the conditions determining our need for information have nothing in common with those which prevalled before the machine age.

In the old days — in fact until quite recently — a man was closely dependent on his surroundings: the peasant's concern was with the soil he tilled, the craftsman's with the craft he pursued, the manufacturer's or tradesman's with the purely local market he supplied. Each was thus familiar with his environment and only needed the information derived by day-to-day experience.

But nowadays our horizon is that of the Earth itself; the conditions governing production are now such that it is dependent no longer upon local but upon world markets, while politics are conducted no longer on a national or even on a continental, but on a global scale: *One World*, as an American writer has put it! So the citizens of this tremendously expanded world can no longer be educated solely by contact with their immediate surroundings: their education must include "information", systematically planned and effectively brought within their reach.

In democratic countries, where universal suffrage and the parliamentary system have trained the general public to discuss the actions and statements of governments, where the press is free and opinions can be expressed without constraint, citizens are normally called upon to use their judgment, since it is their votes which determine national policy. But to do so, they must be given the right facts on which to base their decisions.

## All-powerful techniques

ROUSSEAU considered that democracy was possible only "in a very small State, where the people can be brought together without difficulty and every citizen can easily be acquainted with all his countrymen". In his view, anything larger than the Agora of ancient times was too big. The advanced level of development of our technical resources, many of whose possibilities have still to be explored, allows us to take an entirely different view from Rousseau's.

Printing has long since made possible the diffusion of the written word in unlimited quantities, while further and recent progress enables ideas to be instantly conveyed, in any language, to the uttermost parts of the earth. Radio allows us to listen, thousands of miles away, to a speech while it is actually being made, and television reveals to us a distant speaker's every gesture and every expression that crosses his face. Discussions in parliaments or their committees are brought before us in the fullest detail, so that we have the impression of feeling their heat, of being plunged in their atmosphere. As in almost every transaction of present-day civilization, we may be excused for feeling that technique has a sure solution for every problem submitted to it.

The difficulty is not, therefore, in the technique of information, but in the use to which we are to put it. Shall we, for instance, be able to ensure an objectivity in our information services, recognizing the dignity of the individual by leaving him free to form his own opinion? In a social structure so complex as ours, an increasing number of questions must be left to specialists, for most of us are not equipped to deal with them. But to assume that the specialist can invariably supply the answer would be a serious mistake. Whenever the human factor makes itself felt — and it pervades the whole sphere of politics—the expert's specialization may become a drawback. Much fun has been poked at the man-in-the-street with his sturdy common

# OBJECTIVE NEWS AND PROPAGANDA

*by André Siegfried*

Member of the Académie Française

sense, but not enough, perhaps, at the blunders of the specialist who oversteps the bounds of his competence.

To enable each of us to use our judgment, we need unbiased—that is, honest — information. And here complications arise, for truth is not in the interests of everybody: it has to be defended against the large and powerfully equipped army of those whose secret purpose is to distort it. The basic need is for everyone to be properly informed about current events, especially about those facts which will influence his opinions. This does not entail revealing the secrets of diplomacy or big business: the simplest and most general facts provide the best basis for reflection, and a search for the ins and outs of things often leads people astray. I have come to the conclusion that, in politics, only the relatively cultivated mind is prepared to accept simple explanations. And even so, the facts must be presented objectively and dispassionately.

Let us be optimistic enough to believe that in this field, honesty is the best policy. As business magnates and responsible advertisers are well aware, you cannot fool all of the people for very much of the time. But those whose job it is, or who make it their business to collect information and make it available to the public are naturally tempted to pick and choose, and selection may be based on preferences which are not always disinterested.

This slippery slope leads from the sphere of information to that of education, not to say propaganda, the boundaries between the one and the other being sometimes almost imperceptible. Competition may serve as a corrective, but in its absence there is a real risk of distortion. When control of the press, or of any other source of information, becomes over-centralized, supervision by a higher authority is needed, to ensure that all points of view find expression and are put before the public.

## To 'educate' the people

THIS brings us to another danger, which is most rife under totalitarian governments, but from which not even the genuinely democratic countries are completely exempt — that of a government-controlled information service. Since the first world war, propaganda (to call it by its proper name) has led to the rise of many official bodies, undoubtedly charged with informing the public but also designed to "educate" in a rather special sense of the word.

This is the point at which truth and action, two different things, intersect. The programme we need should include, as its most important item, the sifting of "information" in order to separate truth from propaganda, both in national and international affairs.

The United Nations and Unesco, like the League of Nations in its day, represent the common factor between countries of infinite diversity, brought together by the need to preserve and safeguard peace. It would be optimistic to suggest that closer acquaintance will increase mutual affection; but if our lives are to be linked we do, after all, need to be informed about the characters and activities of those with whom we are likely to come into more and more frequent contact in a world where the perpetual increase of speed results in a constant shrinkage of distances.

Complete objectivity is probably unattainable. Even historians, who are supposed to be pledged to the service of truth, never entirely achieve it. But we must strive for it, either by advocating honesty, on an international scale, in the presentation of facts, or indirectly, by adopting Renan's concept of truth as a dialogue in which the conclusion is arrived at from opposite angles. In fact, the problem of information resembles all the great problems of our epoch: technology has provided us with invincible weapons; the difficulties begin when the human factor supervenes. But it is precisely that factor which makes the struggle, and life itself worth while.

# A U.N. REPORT ON PRESS FREEDOM AND CENSORSHIP

*by Salvador P. Lopez*

THE term "freedom of information" is a relatively new one. The concept, however, is old, being little more than the aggregate of the more familiar antecedent principles of freedom of thought, freedom of expression and freedom of the press. Where freedom of information involves freedom of thought, it has deep roots in man's inborn thirst for knowledge, in his first struggles against ignorance and superstition, and in his earliest strivings after truth; where, on the other hand, it involves freedom of expression, its mainspring lies in the emergent political consciousness of man, his growing realization that this freedom is an indispensable weapon in the struggle against arbitrary and oppressive authority. Freedom of information is freedom of the press by extension; it takes into account the other powerful media of mass communications which modern technology has placed in the service of ideas, as well as the rights and interests of the consumer of news.

In varying phraseology, the constitutions of the different states declare that every citizen may freely speak, write and publish his sentiments, on all subjects, being responsible for the abuse of that right : and no law shall be passed to restrain, or abridge, the liberty of speech, or of the press.

Soviet theorists consider freedom of speech and of the press to be "among the most important political freedoms". However, their approach to securing freedom of information is conditioned by the basic Marxist opposition to private ownership of the means of production, distribution and exchange.

Mr. Andrei Vychinsky has stated that "freedom of speech, of the press... are the property of all the citizens in the U.S.S.R., fully guaranteed by the State upon the sole condition that they be utilized in accord with the interests of the toilers and to the end of strengthening the socialist social order".

Freedom of speech and of the press are denied to the foes of socialism, and "every sort of attempt on their part to utilize to the detriment of the State—that is to say, to the detriment of all the toilers—these freedoms granted to the toilers must be classified as a counter-revolutionary crime."

Although the Soviet theory and practice in this field does represent a significant exception, freedom of information in the traditional Western concept has received widespread recognition as a fundamental human right. Both in theory and in law the essence of the principle is the recognition of complete freedom of expression, by writing or by other means, without prior restraint, but subject to the consequences of the law. The limitations relate to a number of strictly defined matters, principally libel, slander, obscenity, sedition and national security.

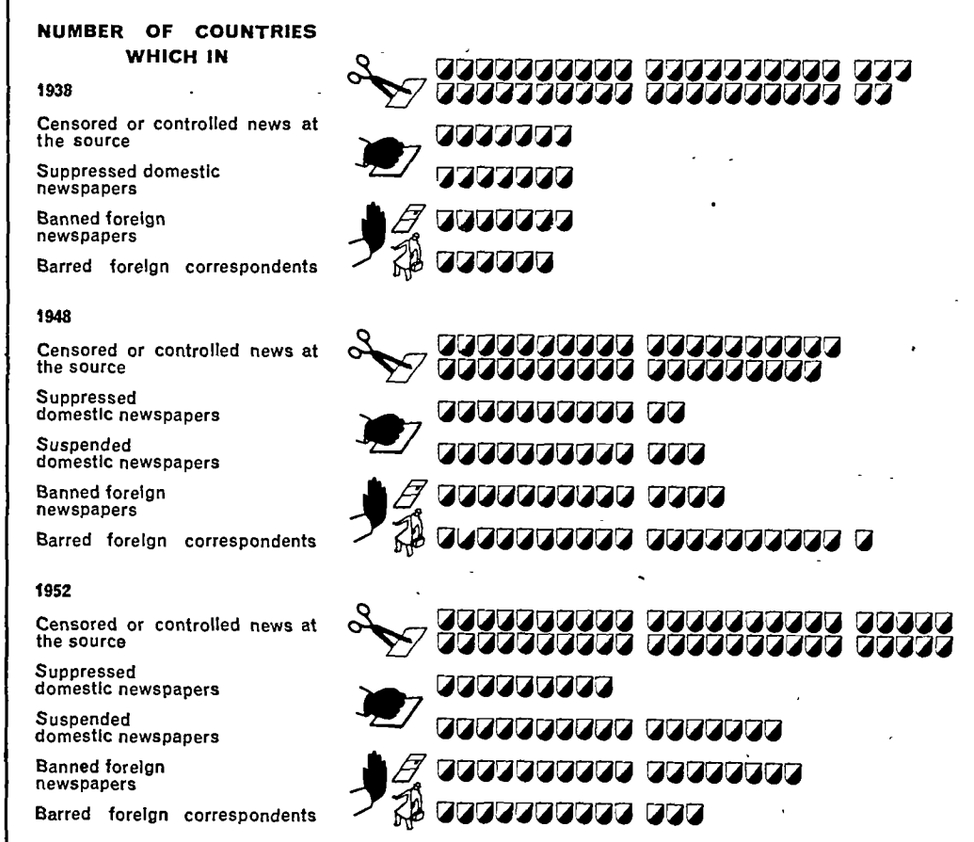
## Right to harangue

BY analogy with the older concepts of freedom of thought and freedom of expression, freedom of information should be regarded as a fundamental right which must be defended at all times against infringement or denial by governmental authority. But, in accordance with the principle that every human right is necessarily limited by respect for the equal rights of others, freedom of information has unavoidable social implications. A man's right to impart information has no meaning of itself except in relation to the right of others to receive information.

The press, film, radio, and television have become highly organized institutions requiring considerable financial and technical resources for their operation. The right of a man to harangue a small group of persons at a street corner is one thing, but the right of a man or group to establish a newspaper, a radio or television station is another matter altogether.

## Number of countries censoring news

When a government bans or suppresses a newspaper or hinders a foreign correspondent in his task of reporting world events, it abridges the right proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights "To seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers." This Declaration was adopted by the United Nations in 1948. Here we see how many countries applied censorship in 1938, ten years before the Declaration, then in 1948, the year of its adoption, and finally in 1952.

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**Dr. Lopez,** *editor and journalist, has been a member of the Philippines delegation to the United Nations since 1946 and is now Minister in charge of that delegation. Delegate to the United Nations Conference on Freedom of Information at Geneva in 1948 and member of the United Nations Sub-Commission on Freedom of Information and of the Press, 1947-52, he was appointed by the Economic and Social Council, 1952, as first United Nations Rapporteur on Freedom of Information. The article published here is condensed from his Report on Freedom of Information, 1953, published by the U.N. Economic and Social Council and to be discussed by the Council in April.*

Gigantic systems of information present organized society with problems of a different order, quantitatively as well as qualitatively speaking. There is need for effective guarantees to ensure their successful operation, as well as for measures to minimize the possibilities of abuse and to prevent tendencies which would sacrifice the general welfare in the interests of private economic power.

The degree of freedom of information varies from country to country and technological advances are rapidly changing the nature of the problem everywhere. The important thing is to determine, in the light of existing conditions, how the principle—the right to impart information as well as the right to receive information—can be most effectively guaranteed.

## They never learn

IT is doleful to remark that history repeats itself, but doubly so to realize that men do not seem to learn much after each repetition. At the end of the Second World War, the peoples and governments of the victorious Powers were gravely concerned—just as they had been at the end of the First World War—over the need to safeguard and promote freedom of information.

They knew that nazism and fascism had been able to mislead and dominate millions of people as much by the power of the word as by the power of the sword. They had observed that wherever dictators seized authority in any country, they proceeded immediately to place the organs of public opinion completely under their control. Freedom of the press and of information was usually the first victim in their mad quest for power.

This anxiety was clearly evident during the drafting of the United Nations Charter in San Francisco. Some delegations expressed the view that the Charter should include an elaborate declaration on human rights. However, it was finally decided to include a general obligation for Member States "to take joint and separate action in co-operation with the Organization" to promote "universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion."

Accordingly, the Economic and Social Council established forthwith a Commission on Human Rights. Keenly aware of two particular evils which nazism and fascism had inflicted on mankind—totalitarian propaganda and racism—the Commission in turn created a Sub-Commission on Freedom of Information and of the press and a Sub-Commission on the Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities.

The world had reverted to the old Biblical injunction that truth alone shall make men free—free of the scourge of ignorance, superstition, hate and war. The Constitution of Unesco marks the rediscovery of the ancient truth in words of bell-like clarity: "Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed".

In a world racked by ideological contention and insurgent nationalism, there has grown an ever-sharpening struggle for the minds of men. Highly developed techniques are being employed for the purpose of information, propaganda and indoctrination, with the result that each is often indistinguishable from the others.

Inevitably in this struggle, the basic human right to freedom of opinion and expression has become, in many parts of the world, a casualty. This is true in the authoritarian States, but even in other countries this right is constantly menaced by the tendency to sacrifice freedom in the ostensible interest of defending freedom. The result is a complex social and political problem, marked by continuous interplay between abuse and efforts to correct abuse, between attempts to restrict freedom and attempts to widen it.

Nazi Germany, fascist Italy and militarist Japan have not been the only parts of the world where, in the twentieth century, the press and other media of information have been coerced or suppressed.

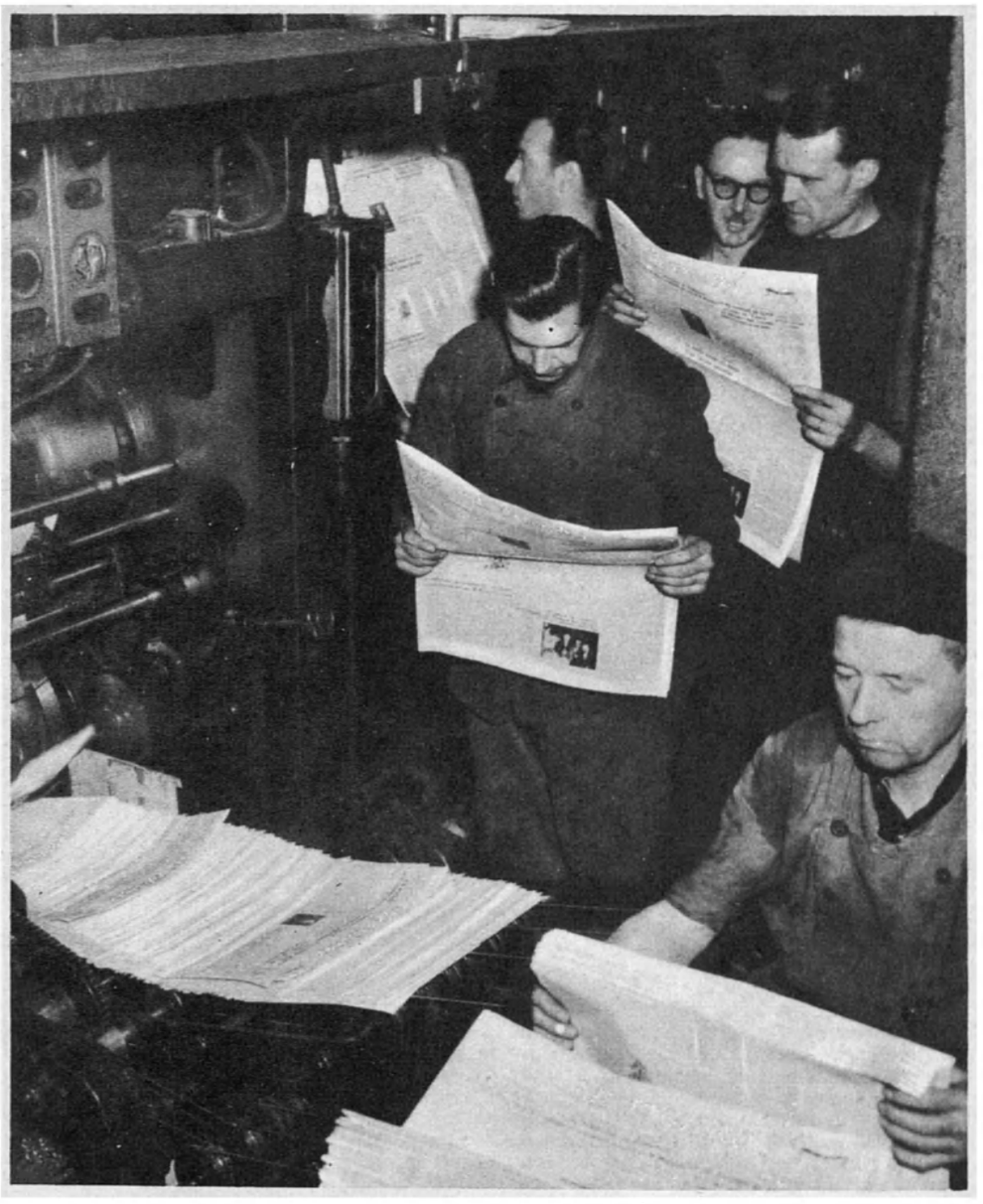
There are, of course, countries and regions of the world where genuine freedom of speech and of the press is denied on ideological grounds and where an opposition press is not permitted to exist. But we are here concerned with those countries which, while professing belief in the liberal Western concept of freedom, have permitted authoritarian methods to be used in silencing criticism.

Such methods may include not only arbitrary and dictatorial measures but action taken under legislation which, while ostensibly aimed at the correction of abuse or the preservation of "public order", can and does serve the purpose of stifling criticism and opposition.

The degree of internal censorship in different countries is difficult to estimate at any given time. In a large part of the world (the USSR, the mainland of China, Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland and Rumania) there is control in the interest of well-defined ideological ends. In Argentina, Portugal and Spain, varying types of controls exist. In many parts of Latin America there is what may be described as a condition of "fluctuating" controls. A government is overthrown or a crisis develops during an election and controls are imposed. As the situation stabilizes, they may be eased.

But even where conditions are more stable, the degree of control may vary from year to year.

A survey of the world censorship situation is made periodically by the Associated Press (USA), one of the several hundred information enterprises and professional organizations whose co-operation was sought in the preparation of this report. The latest such



**THE FIRST READERS** of the morning papers are the printers working in the machine rooms where the giant presses pour out up to 50,000 newspapers in the hour, printing, folding, counting and gathering them together. From here the papers go to the despatch room where they are stocked, sorted and labelled and from where vans take them to distributors and railway stations. Schedules must be strictly adhered to.

# FREEDOM OF EXPRESSION — A 20th CENTURY CASUALTY?

**THE NEWS COMES IN** at the rate of hundreds of words every minute to the world's great daily papers by telephone and tape machine. Stories from correspondents are taken down by telephone reporters such as those seen here working in the editorial offices of a large American newspaper. (Photo USIS.)

survey was completed by the Associated Press toward the end of 1953. Principally concerned with the censorship of outgoing news dispatches it also comments on internal censorship and other restrictions in a number of countries.

The International Press Institute has also, from time to time, published reports of restrictions in various countries.

Another attempt, on a regional basis, to survey press freedom in a number of countries is that made periodically by the Freedom of the Press Committee of the Inter-American Press Association. Reporting on conditions in the Western Hemisphere at the Eighth Annual Meeting of the Association, held in Chicago in October 1952, the committee stated: "The state of freedom of expression... has suffered serious setbacks in certain countries, notable gains in others and ominous trends appear in still others".

The committee went on to reaffirm a previous conclusion that "through decrees and laws which are designed to intimidate editors and publishers of newspapers, radio broadcasting station owners, and managers of communications companies, there has been created an atmosphere of fear which not only produces a menacing self-censorship but deprives the public of legitimate news. This situation obtains especially in countries where governments restrict the freedom of expression through those decrees and laws but exercise no prior censorship in editorial offices, radio news rooms or in the offices of communications companies in a hypocritical simulation that freedom prevails".

There are many variations of such practices. Where it is desired to avoid the crude act of suppression, measures may be taken to cut off newsprint supply, to embarrass the newspaper by various economic and financial pressures such as threat of foreclosure, withdrawal of government advertising or denial of the mails.

Given some supplementary measures of implementation, the Convention on Freedom of Information can make a substantial contribution. Remedial processes will inevitably be gradual. An immediate first step would be to systematize, coordinate and enlarge upon the reports already being compiled by such organizations as the Associated Press, the International Press Institute and the Inter-American Press Association.

A world-wide survey of internal censorship practices and abuses, repressions and violations of freedom of information should be undertaken periodically by a rapporteur on freedom of information, using reliable data from non-governmental professional sources. While the survey would be submitted to the Economic and Social Council, information enterprises and professional associations everywhere would be encouraged to give it the widest possible publicity.

Peacetime censorship of dispatches which a correspondent sends from one country to another has plagued agencies and correspondents ever since the development of radio and telegraphic communications has made it an easy matter for governments to inspect and control messages sent by this means. Like internal censorship and control of the domestic press, this is a "fluctuating" problem, usually difficult to survey and assess at any given time. And it may be imposed in various ways, some overt, some covert.

Overt censorship may be "blind", with the censor refusing to tell the correspondent what has been deleted. Occasionally the correspondent may be able to discuss deletions with the censor across the table. Needless to say, all sorts of complications arise when the correspondent is unaware of what has been done to his dispatch until informed by his home office.

Even more dangerous perhaps is the practice of government telegraph offices delaying "unfriendly" dispatches until they are no longer newsworthy. Government officials may also be informed *sub rosa* of the content of "unfriendly" dispatches, with the result that the correspondent may subsequently experience difficulties with his news sources and possibly in obtaining re-entry permits and visas.

An even more insidious form of censorship consists simply of a discreet warning that while the correspondent is nominally free to write and send what he likes, "unfriendly" articles about the host country will lead to "difficulties".

What are the correctives? Attempts to alleviate censorship are as old as the problem itself. The League of Nations Conference of Press Experts, held in Geneva in 1927, proclaimed that no form of censorship should be established or maintained except "for vital reasons", and if it existed it should be abolished.

However, if it continued to exist, the conference thought there should be certain minimum guarantees, e.g., telegrams should be examined by specialists and sent as quickly as possible; correspondents should be instructed by the specialists and should be informed of suppressed passages and of delays in transmission; there should be refunds when press telegrams are paid in advance, corresponding to the number of words cut; and all correspondents should receive equal treatment.

The world was not in a sufficiently liberal mood however; shortly afterwards began the downhill descent into the Second World War with its closing of doors and windows and its widespread censorship.

After the Second World War, the first attempts to throw off the shackles of wartime censorship found expression in the Declaration of Chapultepec adopted

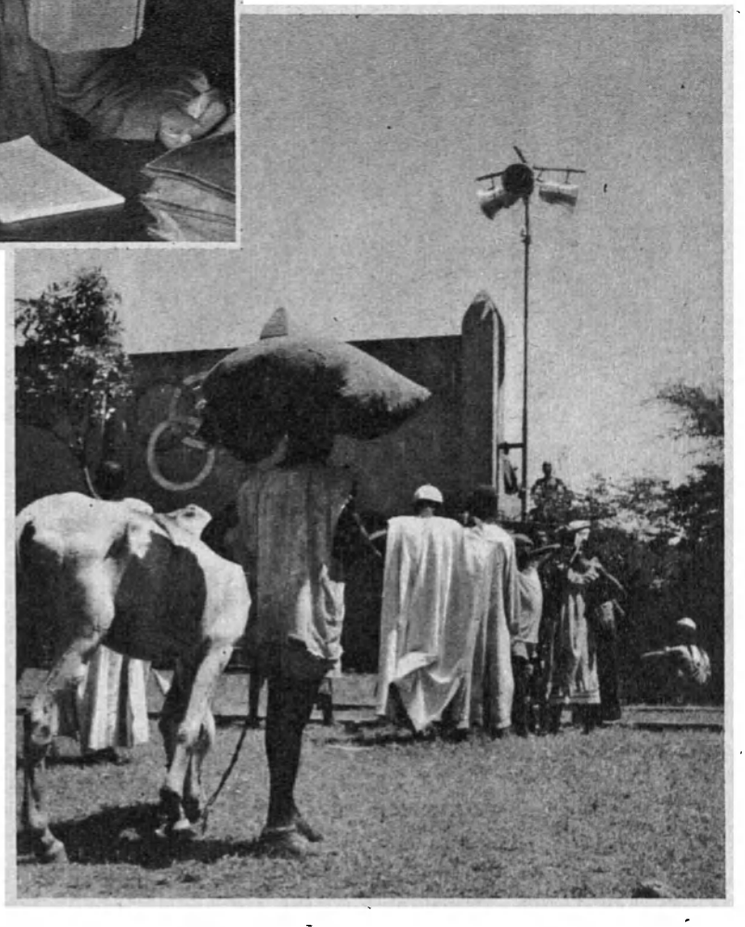
*(Continued on page 31)*

**THE NEWS GOES OUT** across the counters of newsstands like this one in Stockholm, Sweden. A total of 12 million copies of 402 daily newspapers are printed in the Scandinavian languages. The English language press is the world's largest with 2,348 dailies and a circulation of 96 1/2 million copies.

(Photo Dagens Nyheter.)

## Daily newspapers, films and radio :

# FACTS AND FIGURES



**'THE TOWN CRIER'** (modern version) is the public loudspeaker in many French West African villages. Here, as in most other parts of this continent, newspaper production is small while illiteracy rates are high, so the advantages of radio are obvious. Information, preceeded by a musical programme to attract the people, is broadcast from Radio Dakar and includes news bulletins and local announcements. (Photos Kitrosser.)

**IN the twentieth century news has become a necessity for millions of people. The desire of men and women to be informed, expanding with the growth of education, has been accompanied by immense progress in the technical development of means of communication. Today, in fact, there is no longer any technical barrier to stop or even to slow down the exchange of information.**

**And yet the facts and figures collected by the United Nations show many gaps in the world network of communications facilities. Unesco, concerned with the quality and quantity of news reaching the public, has surveyed the world's information resources and has drawn up a complete inventory over a period of five years.**

**These investigations show that very few countries or territories are entirely lacking in some form of press, film or radio facilities. But the question is whether the "man in the street" can count, as part of his day-to-day experience, upon access to news concerning more than purely village affairs. On this basis, a large part of the world must still be classified as under-developed.**

**The world picture must necessarily be shown in general terms. Firstly it is not easy to establish a hard and fast line between sufficient and insufficient news facilities; secondly certain countries may be relatively well equipped in, say, radio, but have a far from satisfactory press; thirdly, within generally under-developed areas are found occasional "pockets" where the information media are highly developed.**

**With these reservations it may be said that a privileged zone is made up of Canada and the United States; the whole of Europe, but more particularly western and northern Europe; Australia, New Zealand and Japan. By contrast, the under-developed zone, which is much vaster, includes practically the whole of Africa, the Middle East, Central and Southeast Asia, and to a certain extent, Central and South America (1).**

IN the field of press, the United States is by far the luckiest of all countries with an average annual consumption of newsprint exceeding 35 kilos per inhabitant. With smaller papers, though with an equal or even higher distribution per population, the highest figures in Europe and Oceania reach approximately 15 kilos per inhabitant. By comparison, the highest figures reached in the under-developed zones are: for South America, 8 kilos; for Africa, 5 kilos; for Asia, 3.6 kilos. However, the disparity between the United States and Europe takes no account of the fact that while European newspapers have fewer pages, they do not necessarily contain less news than American papers.

★

In Africa, out of fifty-odd territories, only nine (Egypt, the Union of South Africa, Southern Rhodesia, the Gold Coast, the three French North African territories and the islands of Mauritius and Réunion) have more than ten copies of daily newspapers per 1,000 inhabitants. Of these nine, only one, the Union of South Africa, has more than fifty. In Asia, the situation is similar, only eight countries having more than ten copies per 1,000. For Central and Southern Asia, including India, Pakistan, Indonesia, Iran, the figure varies from less than one to a maximum of six. In Asia, however, we find two countries in which the press has attained what might be called full development: Israel, with 286 copies per 1,000 inhabitants, and Japan with 334.

★

There are marked differences in the structure of communications facilities, one of the chief reasons perhaps being political. Unlike the situation in Africa, where most territories are non-self-governing, the great majority of Asian countries are independent States. A striking characteristic of the press in Asia is the large number of daily newspapers that appear in many countries: thirty or more in Burma, Syria, Thailand; fifty-five to sixty in Iraq and Pakistan, nearly 100 in Indonesia, 578 in India. Yet the average circulation of these newspapers is about 3,000 copies; only a few exceed 25,000.

★

In Central and South America the press is relatively more developed, in the sense that, with the exception of Haiti and one or two Non-Self-Governing Territories, nowhere are there less than ten copies per 1,000 inhabitants. But for the majority of countries the figure is under fifty, and for only three (Argentina, Uruguay and Panama) is it over 100.

★

The total world circulation of daily newspapers is 217,174,490. Europe, with 400,000,000 inhabitants, leads with 92,228,400. North America, with 225,000,000 inhabitants, has the second

*(Continued on page 32)*

(1) *In most cases, and especially for the daily press, it was not possible to obtain information for Albania, Bulgaria, North Korea, Hungary, the Mongolian People's Republic, Rumania, Czechoslovakia, U.S.S.R. and the continental area of China.*

# A NEWSFLASH CROSSES THE WORLD

**by Percy Winner**

It's well after dark on a hot midsummer night in a small town, let's call it Jonesville, though that's not its real name — in the southwestern corner of the prairie state of Kansas close to the centre of the United States of America. Most people are in bed trying to sleep despite the heat, which is unusual even for the time of the year. Here and there, however, some are just passing the time.

For example, there's a group of men on the porch of the hotel on Main Street. Among them is Bill Sommers, swaying in his favourite rocking chair, smoking his corn-cob pipe, listening with half an ear to two young fellows, Jim Peters and Artie Carruthers, just back from action in Korea, and now complaining to each other that nothing ever happens in Jonesville; and also to a vague, heavy droning sound somewhere in the distance.

Further along Main Street in the office of the weekly farm newspaper — which we can call the Amos County Gazette — Harry Eccles, the editor and the local "stringer" (part-time correspondent) of the Associated Press (AP) is busy "putting the paper to bed" — which means getting it ready to be printed and circulated. He too hears the distant noise and wonders what it can be.

Suddenly, on the porch of the hotel, Jim and Artie stop talking at the same moment. Both of them listen intently. "Say," says Jim to Bill Sommers, "there never used to be big planes flying over there. And that sure is a big one." Artie, bolting from the group to the middle of the street, looks upward toward the starless, velvety black of the night sky. He points excitedly toward the west, shouting: "Look, a real big one, low, and in trouble, I'm sure."

By now the distant drone has become a fretful, coughing roar. Eccles at the window of his office, and other residents of the town, at their windows, can now see plainly in the sky the wide-spaced red and green wing lights of a large plane, and between them, close to the red light, two spurts of flame. Artie is running in the direction of the plane's movement, and as he passes the office of the Gazette, he calls out: "Two motors afire. She's going to crash, sure. Get help, help..."

Before the plane swoops downward, Editor Eccles' warning telephone call has been received by the correspondent of the AP in Dodge City, Kansas. Well before the real tragedy occurs — the failure of the pilot to clear the telegraph wires alongside the road a mile and a half west of Jonesville — the call has been relayed to Kansas City, the key point on the AP's "A" wire, the main artery of the news agency's domestic services, which connects the Atlantic and Pacific Coasts, and the Canadian frontier with Texas and Florida.

When the would-be rescue workers are standing helpless, kept back by terrible heat, several score yards from the splintered and charred steel remains of what was a great plane, the Kansas City office of the AP has already checked by telephone, teleprinter and telegraph with a dozen offices in Chicago, New York and Washington to find out what plane could have been in the vicinity of Jonesville.

And by the time the small boys carrying messages from the scene of the tragedy, in a motor-car relay service quickly organized by Artie to

## FROM BERMUDA TO THE FRONT PAGE

All the technical resources at the disposal of modern news collection and diffusion are brought into play when an important world event takes place. At a meeting of leaders of the major powers, such as the Bermuda Conference, news coverage becomes a major operation, requiring the installation of vast quantities of equipment (upper photo). A few hours later, people many thousands of miles away will be reading reports of the conference on page one of their newspapers. Those listening to their radios will already have heard short accounts. Where direct television coverage has been possible people will have watched the event as it was taking place.

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**Percy Winner** *of Unesco's Press Division has had news agency experience including service as correspondent of the Associated Press in London, Paris and Rome; correspondent in Paris and chief of the Rome Bureau of the International News Service; chief correspondent in New York of the Havas News Agency of France (pre-war predecessor of the Agence-France-Presse). He has also been director of the international division of the National Broadcasting Company and a broadcaster in French for the Columbia Broadcasting System.*

help Editor Eccles, have brought word that there can't possibly be survivors, Kansas City knows that Jonesville has been the scene of a news event of international importance. For the plane that crashed — for reasons as yet unknown — was carrying a group of leading government officials from several countries, including the United States, Australia, Great Britain, France, Norway and a number of South American countries — all due to attend a conference in San Francisco.

The news — everything that can be learned from Jonesville, where a staff man of the AP is now present, and everything that has thus far been learned about the plane and its distinguished passengers — is now moving over Kansas City's 20 wire circuits, especially to New York and to San Francisco, from where it is being relayed across the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and also southward to Latin America.

## 'Big six' of the agencies

THE Associated Press which we have chosen as an example of a vehicle for the transmission of a news event in one part of the world to newspaper readers, radio listeners and television viewers in a number of countries in the same and other parts of the world, is one of the so-called world telegraphic news agencies. There are only six such world agencies, the other five are the Agence France Presse of France, Reuters of Great Britain, Tass of the Soviet Union, and the United Press and International News Service of the United States.

This term — a world agency — is used to denote an agency which maintains a network of correspondents to collect news in a great number of countries and a headquarters staff which edits these news items, as well as domestic news, and sends them as quickly as possible to the agency's bureaux abroad for local distribution to newspapers and broadcasting stations; to national agencies abroad with which it has working agreements; and directly to press and radio subscribers abroad.

Naturally, the AP has, in common with the other five world agencies, an extensive network of telecommunications facilities for gathering and transmitting news. In addition to large offices in such cities as New York, Washington, Kansas City, San Francisco, Los Angeles, it has in the United States some 100 bureaux, some staffed by a single correspondent; and it also has many "stringers" like Editor Eccles in Jonesville. The collection of news outside the United States is carried out by a staff of about 50 bureaux and by a large number of correspondents working in every continent. The number of countries in which the AP has subscribers is now more than 70.

Because of the nationality and prominence of some of the victims of the disaster at Jonesville, the news is of special interest all over the world, especially in the British Commonwealth, Western Europe and Latin America. From New York to which the news has been transmitted over the AP "A" wire from Kansas City, it is relayed by a cable which runs directly to the AP "world desk" in London. To this central routing point, thousands of words of news come daily, most of them concerning happenings in the United States, the Western hemisphere generally and the Pacific area.

From London, the news is distributed in the United Kingdom by an organization called the Press Association. It is also sent by leased teleprinter to a large number of subscribers in Europe. The teleprinter network links London with Amsterdam, Berlin, Brussels, Copenhagen, Frankfurt, Hamburg, Luxembourg, Milan, Oslo, Paris, Rome, Stockholm, Vienna. Connecting circuits supply subscribers in France, Germany, the Netherlands, Scandinavia, Italy and Belgium, who are not in the cities mentioned above. From Stockholm, the news goes to Finland; and from Frankfurt, it goes to Hungary, Greece, Turkey, Egypt, Israel, Malaya, Burma and Iran.

Subscribers in Latin America get the news by radio newscast from New York, a service transmitted for 18 hours daily; or by radio-teleprinter service, also from New York. There are also wire connections to Mexico City and Havana.

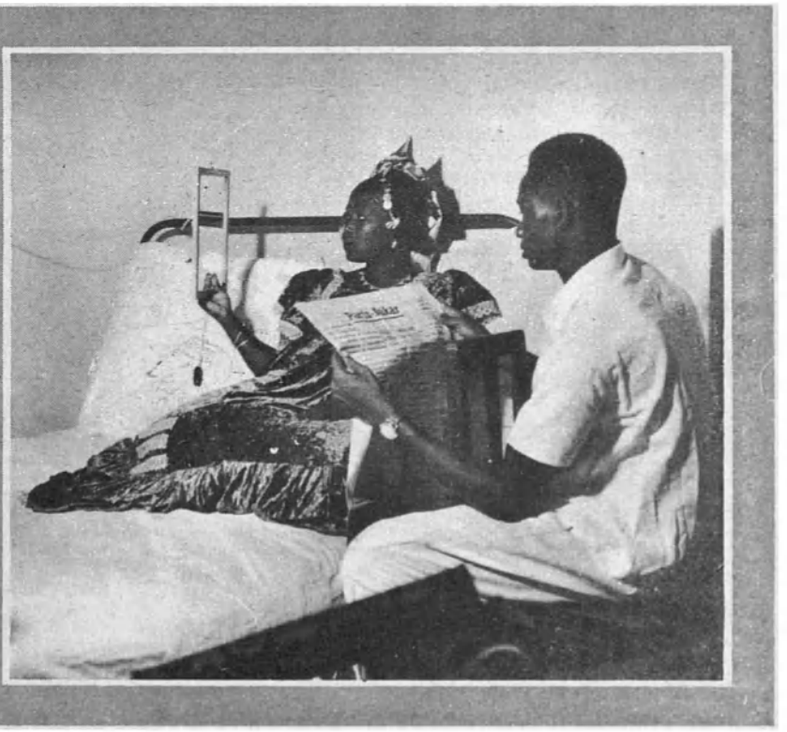
From San Francisco, the western terminus of the "A" wire from Kansas City, the news is conveyed by radio-teleprinter to the entire Pacific area. The news from the small town in the southwestern corner of a prairie state is received in such distant places as Manila, Tokyo, Singapore and Hong Kong.

Thanks to news exchange arrangements between world agencies, the story of the plane crash at Jonesville has been made available in New York by the AP to Reuters and the Agence-France-Presse. Other agencies with which exchange arrangements exist are the Canadian Press, the Australian Associated Press, the Austria Presse Agentur, TASS, the Associated Press of Pakistan, the Kyodo News Service of Japan, the Agentie de Informatii Telegrafice of Rumania, the Magyar Tavirati Iroda of Hungary, the Haptong Tongshin of (South) Korea, and the New Zealand Press Association.

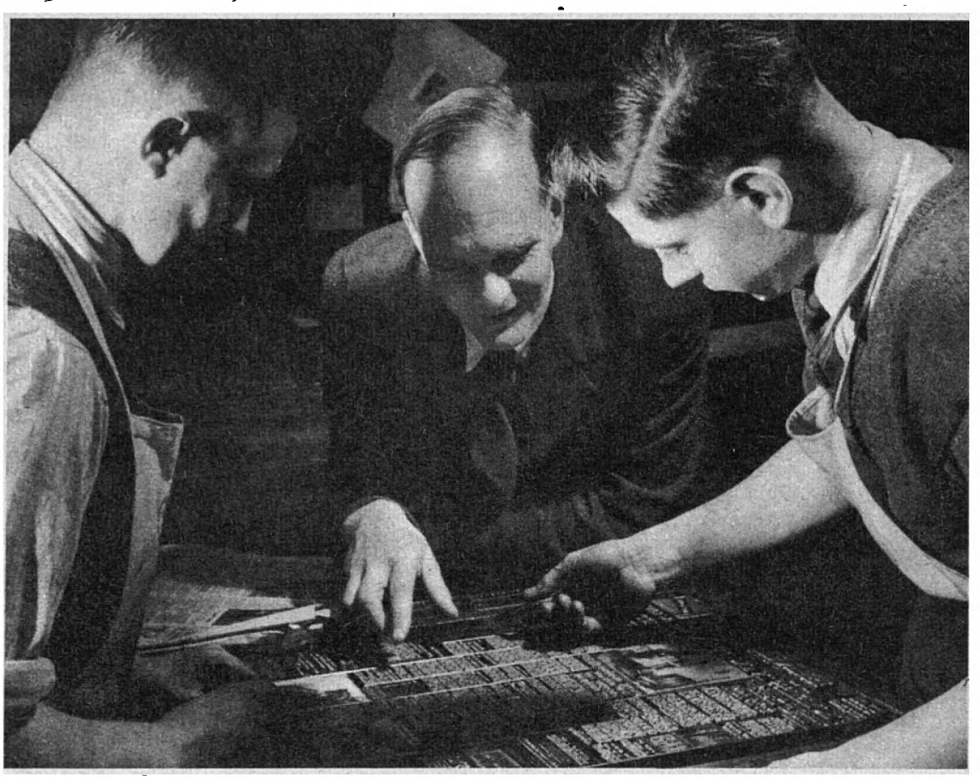
## Millions have been informed

PARALLEL with the AP, the other two world telegraphic news agencies in the United States — the United Press and the International News Service — have provided their subscribers and associated agencies in many parts of the world with full information about the crash at Jonesville. All three agencies have given service to radio networks and television stations both in the United States and abroad. Moreover, correspondents in New York, Washington and San Francisco of major foreign newspapers have sent articles about the news and reporters of foreign radio networks have broadcast it.

Within a few hours of the moment on a hot midsummer night when two young men lamented that nothing ever happens in Jonesville, Kansas, U.S.A., many millions of persons all over the world are fully informed — by news agencies, newspapers, radio and television — of the tragic event that occured there.



# Newspapers are as good as their readers make them



**A PAGE TAKES SHAPE** on the "stone" — the table on which the newspaper type is assembled in a metal frame called a forme. Here a sub-editor supervises the make-up of the page as it is placed in the forme according to an editorial plan. (Photo C.O.I.)

THERE are two essential qualities of a good newspaper — freedom and responsibility.

Neither is exclusively dependent upon its Editor and controllers. Both depend also upon the acceptance by Governments and officials of all kinds, of their public obligation to make fully and freely available all the facts required for the full and impartial reporting of public affairs. And their acceptance also of the obligation to permit full and free comment on those facts.

Nor is this all. Freedom and responsibility are not qualities which grow of themselves. They require the support and stimulation of a public opinion which recognizes their value. Newspapers are as good as their readers make them. The quality of news depends as much upon those who read it as those who write it.

It is obvious that neither of these circumstances exists in all parts of the world. Over great areas newspapers are regarded as the instruments of Governments to report only what is acceptable and useful to those in power and to comment only as officialdom requires. In many other areas where the press is nominally free, the obstacles that stand in the way of full and honest reporting are formidable — obstacles in some cases of legal prohibition, in others of official attitude.

Nor is a public opinion which is ready to accept — still less to demand — honest and impartial reporting and objective comment, by any means universal even in those countries where newspapers are nominally free, and democratic institutions a part of the constitution. Where political development is in its early

**by Francis Williams**

stages, and where education is restricted and illiteracy high, public opinion, although it may nominally embrace the need for a free press, is unlikely to be much interested in a responsible one. The price of circulation and with it of economic survival in such circumstances may be not responsibility but irresponsibility.

It is necessary to say this since it is unrealistic to write of the quality of the news without appreciating that many of the circumstances which make quality in news reporting possible are wholly or partially non-existent over large areas of the world.

The basic principles of good journalism may be universal. The factors which alone make possible their practical application are far from being so.

Even where such principles are theoretically accepted the means to translate them into positive terms do not exist in considerable areas of the world — a fact which those who look at the problems of journalism from levels of sophistication made possible by the existence of mature press systems need to bear in mind.

I have recently been engaged on an examination of the press of one Middle Eastern country, Iraq. Iraq is more fortunate than many in the fact that its natural resources, particularly in oil, are enabling it to carry through a substantial programme of economic and educational development. Great dams, irrigation schemes and electric power projects are being carried through. New schools and colleges are being built.

The problem of mass illiteracy is also being tackled, yet many of the newspapers lag behind and the vast majority are still small and economically insecure. Their circulations are to be counted in a great many cases in a few hundreds. Even in the case of the most successful, circulation is no more than five or six thousand at the most. Facilities for reliable reporting even of domestic affairs are almost non-existent. There is no domestic news agency, hardly any consistent exchange of information between the leading towns. The supply of international news is small: its transmission costly.

Such conditions can be duplicated in many other parts of the world — indeed in very many areas they are much worse. Where they exist the quality of news is bound to be affected for such quality depends first of all upon existence of the means to report adequately, fairly, and objectively all happenings of public importance both domestic and international.

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**Francis Williams**, *British journalist and author, has long been active in efforts through the United Nations to improve international communication of news. He is the author of "Press, Parliament and People", a study of the relationship between governments and newspapers. His latest work, "Transmitting World News — A Study of Telecommunications and the Press", has recently been published by Unesco.*

Co-operative news agencies linked by exchange and other agreements with the great world news agencies seem to me, therefore, to be an essential part of the effort to raise the quality of news throughout large parts of the world. Advice and assistance in their development is one of the first tasks with which all who are concerned in raising the quality of news should concern themselves.

This being said, what are the essential qualities which ought to be displayed by newspapers which do not suffer from such disabilities ?

I believe the first essential to be the separation of news from comment. It is part of the responsibility of a newspaper to comment on what is important in the news of the day : it is no less a part of its responsibility to leave the reader in no doubt where reporting ends and comment begins.

## Unbalanced news

STATED thus baldly the issue seems clear and simple — a mere matter of restricting the reporting of events and policy developments to the news pages and the comment on them to the leader page. It is far from being so in fact.

In the first place it is impossible for any newspaper serviced by a highly developed and mature system of national and international news collection to print all the news that flows into its office from all parts of the world almost every hour of the day and night. There must be selection — especially so where newsprint is scarce and costly and newspapers are severely restricted in space. And the very fact of selection implies comment. There is no comment more absolute than the decision to exclude a piece of news as unimportant.

Nor does the comment implicit in the inevitable exercise of editorial judgment as to the relative importance of the news available end with the decision to print or not to print. It finds hardly less significant expression in the placing and presentation of the news selected — the decision as to whether it shall go on the front page or on an inside page, at the top of a column or at the bottom, shall have large headlines or small.

Such indirect comment is inevitable. But it has been made more emphatic with the development of modern techniques of newspaper make-up. These tend to concentrate immense resources of typographical skill on making the appearance of a page attractive even at the expense of a lack of balance in the treatment of the news itself.

## Reader's safeguard

THE only safeguard open to the reader in such circumstances is that of a choice of newspapers. With such a choice he can at least elect to buy the newspaper whose editorial judgment of news values experience has shown to be nearest to his own or whose bias in the selection and presentation of news he is aware of and can consequently be on watch against. And if he is wise he can buy a second paper against which to check the first.

Objectivity is one of the most difficult of all virtues. In the nature of things journalists — like other men — are subjective thinkers. They are writing for readers who are also subjective thinkers. A policy decision which to the supporters of the Government making it may quite honestly appear wise and statesmanlike may no less honestly appear to its opponents as shortsighted and foolish. It is almost impossible to avoid some reflection of this in the treatment and headlining of news.

Gross bias can be avoided by the exercise of normal professional standards of accuracy and fairness. Bias of a less obvious kind is almost impossible to avoid because it may be no more than the reflection of the impact of the news upon the editor or sub-editor himself or represent his almost instinctive professional appreciation of how the news will strike his particular readers.

I said earlier that ideally there should be a complete separation of news and comment. Yet within this ideal there are, I think, certain exceptions which, so long as they are made openly and without disguise, can be useful and justifiable.

The increasing complexity of much international and economic news is such that it is difficult for the ordinary general reader to find his way among much of it without expert guidance. In such circumstances the bare reporting of facts may itself be misleading, since without help the reader cannot possibly understand their implications.

It seems to me, therefore, that in such fields the quality of news may be not reduced but enhanced where an experienced correspondent—diplomatic, political, economic or whatever the subject may be—not only reports the facts but himself interprets and even comments upon them. What is essential is that it should always be made clear that he is doing so and that he himself should plainly differentiate between what is report and what is comment in his article.

The means to collect and distribute news; acceptance of the responsibility to report the facts—not necessarily all of them, for that, indeed, would often be physically impossible, but enough of those that are significant to give a fair and balanced picture: as clear a discrimination between news and comment as the inherently subjective nature of most human judgment makes possible—all these are necessary if the quality of news is to be maintained.

But more still is needed—continuity of reporting. And this is a quality not always to be found even in many otherwise excellent papers.

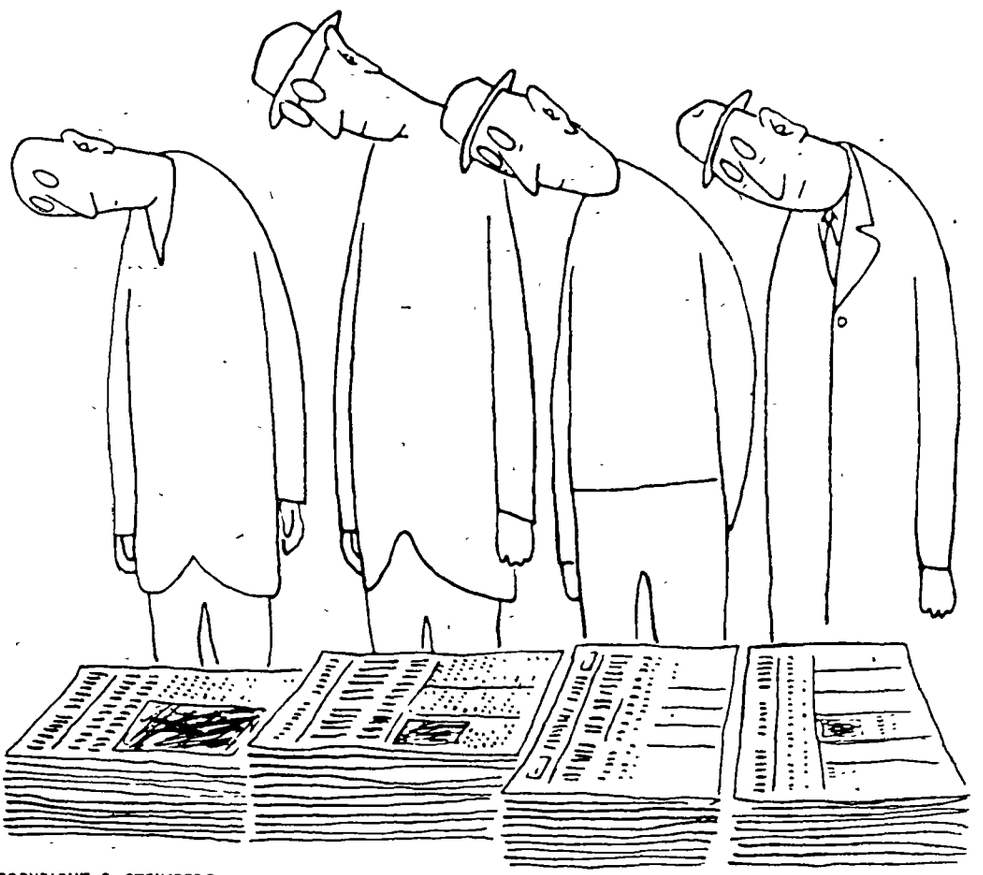
In the recent survey of news treatment by seventeen major dailies made by Unesco in the publication "One Week's News" the conclusion was reached that although most of the seventeen papers referred to all major events in one form and another the news was seldom presented in a systematic way.

## Journalistic defect

THIS is true of almost all newspapers of large circulation. It is becoming not less but more so with increasing emphasis on display and headline treatment.

"The reader consequently", continues the Unesco report, "has to make an effort to inform himself. If he really wants to know what has occurred his close attention is required even for papers which are intended to be read quickly and superficially".

Although this absence of systematic reporting is a defect of modern journalism and one to which those who are professionally concerned about the quality of news need to give their most serious consideration. its indirect effect may not be wholly bad. If it should, indeed, bring the reader "to make an effort to inform himself" then its ultimate consequences are likely to be excellent. In the last resort the quality of news depends, as I said earlier, upon the reader no less than the writer. The wise reader is he who takes what his newspaper has to offer, not as a final statement on events, but as raw material from which to fashion an independent judgment of his own.



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# Action by the U.N. for Freedom of Information

THE United Nations and its specialized agencies are engaged in a widespread programme to promote the flow of news between nations. Among the agencies concerned are Unesco, the International Telecommunication Union, Universal Postal Union, Food and Agriculture Organization, International Bank and the International Labour Organization.. Here are some ways in which they are helping to "free the news".

★ work for the observance of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights;

★ promotion of international conventions on freedom of information;

★ continuing appraisal of problems and developments concerning freedom of information;

★ work for the improvement of professional standards in press, radio and film;

★ efforts to improve the status and working conditions for news personnel;

★ award of fellowships providing training for news personnel at home and abroad;

★ work to facilitate access to news and its unhampered transmission;

★ promotion of the free movement of news personnel across frontiers;

★ assistance in increasing press, radio, film and television facilities;

★ aid in developing independent information enterprises, particularly in economically under-developed areas;

★ efforts to increase production and assure better distribution of newsprint;

★ administration of international regulations for the world's telegraph, telephone and radio services;

★ improvement of communication facilities and techniques;

★ assignment of frequencies to radiocommunication services;

★ work to establish lowest possible communication rates consistent with efficiency;

★ co-ordination and improvement of international postal services;

★ efforts for the adoption of reduced rates and other facilities for the postal dispatch of newspapers and magazines;

★ work for the reduction of import duties on newspapers, magazines, newsreels, sound recordings and other information articles;

★ publication of studies on freedom of information questions, including communication facilities and techniques.

# A DOUBLE CHECK FOR

**by François Le Lionnais**

*FLYING SAUCER REPORTS, rash claims of imminent inter-planetary flights and even stories of visitors from other worlds have become almost commonplace nowadays. As long as such stories are kept in their proper category—imaginative writing—no great harm is done. But once the public starts to believe pseudo-scientific stories a real danger arises. A photograph of a fly's throat (right) as seen under a microscope, could be presented as a "Man from Mars", just as, recently, a retouched photo was published as an authentic shot of a "flying saucer". Scientists and science writers are combatting such practices by making complete and accurate scientific information available to the press.*

INACCURATE scientific information and, what is even worse, pseudo-sciences, flourish today as never before. This is a symptom of a very real sickness in our world which is not properly recognized.

We need not be unduly concerned by the slight errors, minor misunderstandings or involuntary distortions that arise. These may be regrettable, but they are inevitable and do no very great harm. The pseudo-sciences—especially astrology, radiesthesia and forms of occultism in medicine—and new myths, like the story of the flying saucers, however, should be denounced. These do a great deal of harm. If writers, publishers and newspaper owners give these wild stories and pseudo-sciences space in their columns—and often a great deal of space—it is, no doubt, because they do not realize the dangers. But the poisoning of the public mind as the natural corollary of an enterprising commercial policy is something which science cannot accept.

It is one thing to criticize and quite another to find a solution. To know what is wrong does not necessarily tell us how to remedy it. Journalists have to get through their work quickly—for the presses will not wait—and, at the same time, to appear to know all about everything, which they obviously cannot do. And they have to accept this challenge every day or every week. How can we really check that a piece of information is reliable when we are pressed for time?

A recent innovation in France seems to point to one satisfactory way of solving this problem. This is a Telephonic Science Reference Service inaugurated by the French Association of Science Writers.

**Mr Le Lionnais** *is President of the Association of French Science Writers and Assistant Head of Unesco's Division of Science teaching.*

This service is assured by some fifty experts who, between them, cover the whole field of science. Each of them has agreed to answer questions, without charge, for journalists who wish to consult them or to check on the accuracy of a piece of science news. The names of these experts, printed on a large wall board and in a pocket-size booklet, were distributed at a recent press conference in Paris.

This new departure has been welcomed enthusiastically, not only by the French daily newspapers, but also by the various specialized branches of the press—technical journals, women's magazines, children's papers and general periodicals—and by the many foreign correspondents in Paris.

The new Science Reference Service is now busily at work, covering all subjects from mathematics to the history of science, and ranging over physics, chemistry, biology, psychology and social science. The experts are constantly consulted, and every day are able to do something to advance the sound development of scientific training in France, by cutting off false information at the source, by correcting serious errors which might have been put out together with correct information, by providing useful comment or clarifying details about news items, or by making clear the real importance of some discovery or an invention which might have been exaggerated or under-estimated.

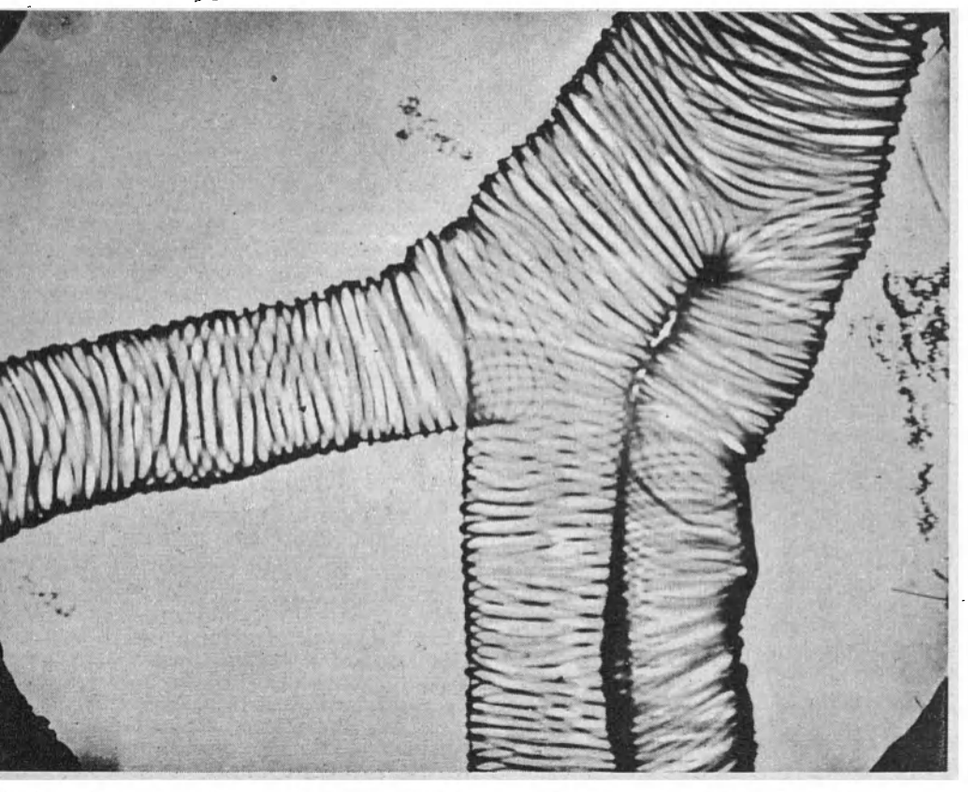
Prevention is better than cure. An entertaining and instructive book could already be written about the false information which has not been published in the last few months. This Service is certainly an idea which might well be copied elsewhere.

By no means all the scientific errors or mis-statements appear in publications. Most people have heard about broadcasting "scares", such as the programme broadcast some years ago which described, as though it were actually taking place, the invasion of the United States of America by the inhabitants of Mars. The illusion created was so real and caused such panic that it led to several fatal accidents. A few years later, a broadcast in France, caused a similar scare although the results were less tragic. Such incidents in the broadcasting world are, fortunately, rare, because those in charge of the radio are conscious of the formidable power they wield and avoid abusing it.

Those at the head of affairs today have plenty of problems to solve, but the intellectual and moral health of the people, and their resistance to various forms of mental toxics is certainly not the least important. This is a vital point in scientific information, and in the work that science writers have to do today.

This work—carried on through the media of mass communication—the press, publishing, lecturing, radio, television, films, photography, museums, etc — consists in the diffusing of full and reliable scientific information, not only to add to the sum of our knowledge but, even more important, so as to develop our critical faculty and, as a result, our capacity for effective practical action. For science is not simply a store-house of knowledge : it also offers an ideal training ground for the mind. Its value as a means of training is probably the soundest argument in favour of the "right to culture".

# SCIENCE REPORTING



# Unesco books on press, radio and the cinema

**Press, Film, Radio : Reports of the Commission on Technical Needs, Vol. V : 1951.**
(584 pp.) $ 4.50 25/- 1,250 fr.
Completes the world wide survey on press, film and radio facilities begun in 1947.

**World Communications.**
(224 pp.) $ 2.50 13/6 650 fr.
A graphic account of the world's facilities for communicating information and ideas by means of the press, radio, film and television.

**Legislation for Press, Film and Radio,** by Fernand Terrou and Lucien Solal.
(420 pp.) $ 2.00 12/6 600 fr.
A comparative study of the various regulations affecting the press, radio and film industries.

**The Child Audience,** by Philippe Bauchard.
(212 pp.) $ 2.00 11/6 550 fr.
A discussion of the methods used or contemplated in twelve countries to protect children from the undesirable influences which may be exerted by the press, the radio and the films.

**Trade Barriers to Knowledge**
(168 pp.) $ 1.00 6/- 300 fr.
The tariff and trade regulations of 43 countries affecting the movement of educational, scientific and cultural materials from one country to another, compiled by the Intelligence Unit of the *Economist,* London.

**The Film Industry in Six European Countries,** by "Film Centre", London.
(156 pp.) $ .65 4/- 200 fr.
A detailed study of the Danish film industry as compared with that in the United Kingdom, France, Italy, Sweden and Norway.

**Newsreels across the World,** by Peter Baechlin and Maurice Muller-Strauss.
(100 pp.) $ 2.00 10/6 500 fr.
Covering 50 countries, this is the first world-wide survey yet made of the production, distribution and content of news films. Illustrations.

**The Entertainment Film for Juvenile Audiences,** by Henri Storck.
(240 pp.) $ 1.25 7/6 375 fr.
This book surveys the production of entertainment films for juveniles.

**Films on Art : Panorama 1953.**
(78 pp.) $ .75 5/- 250 fr.
Contains a 53-page catalogue of films on art which gives technical data on 720 films from 31 countries. 32 illustrations.

**Transmitting World News,** by Francis Williams.
(112 pp.) $ 1.00 6/- 300 fr.
Shows, by means of text and pictographs, how the flow of news around the world is hampered

**News Agencies, Their Structure and Operation.**
(208 pp.) $ 3.50 21/- 1,000 fr.
Provides detailed reports on each of the world and national news agencies. Contains 16 pictographs, 8 of which form a separate, removable insert suitable for use as wall displays.

**Paper for Printing,** Today and Tomorrow — by the Intelligence Unit of the *Economist,* London.
(140 pp.) $ 1.25 7/- 350 fr.
This book discusses the problem of supplying the world's increasing needs for newsprint, other printing paper and writing paper.

**One Week's News,** by Jacques Kayser.
(102 pp.) $ 2.50 14/6 700 fr.
A comparative analysis of the way in which newspapers in 17 countries reported the news during a one-week period. Pictographs and photos.

**Professional Training of Journalists,** by Robert W. Desmond.
(96 pp.) $ .40 2/- 100 fr.
A study of the evolution and organization of training courses for journalists.

**Low-Cost Radio Reception,** by Claude Mercier.
(120 pp.) $ .65 4/- 200 fr.
Organizing broadcasting services in economically underdeveloped countries.

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# The class takes the daily news apart

**THE DAILY PRESS** is full of raw material for classroom use in geography, history, current events and civic affairs lessons. Even the, unhappily frequent, street accident report can help to bring home a lesson in road safety drill.

by Boris Ford

THE great thing about widespread literacy, it has been remarked, is that it has conferred on man the inestimable blessing of being able to read the daily press. It is certainly true that societies which are literate (and which sometimes like to think of themselves as civilized on that account) devour quite remarkable quantities of newsprint : for most people, in fact, reading means reading the newspaper before anything else and maybe to the exclusion of anything else.

But just as it is fair to say that the word "newspaper" is seldom literally accurate, so the word "reading" is for the most part a courtesy description of what a newspaper demands of its clientele The modern newspaper is in reality a topical magazine; the news is provided not so much with a view to giving information as entertainment; it is intended less to illumine than to dazzle.

"By his company shall ye know him" : not only is this true of the news to be found in the press, it is also true of the form that the news takes. It explains the emphasis on the human angle, the emotional afflatus, the over-dramatizations, that take one often so far from the humblest origins of the story.

There are, of course, the "class" newspapers which are to be found in nearly every country and which take a serious view of their mission. They are sober, factual organs of limited circulation and considerable influence. They do their best to observe Scott's famous dictum that news is sacred, opinion is free. And yet one has only to examine simultaneous issues of, say, the London and New York "Times" and "Le Monde" to be struck with their dissimilarity and even, on many occasions, with their disparity. Their record of the facts of an event or conference may well be much the same, though pressure of space makes this far from certain. Their estimate of trends, their interpretation of causes and motives, indeed the whole character and spirit of their make-up will almost certainly be profoundly different one from the other.

Reading or at any rate cultivating the newspaper is not, therefore, a trivial undertaking. The press today has a dominating influence for better or worse, on the quality of social life. At the very least, in the words of the P.E.P. (Political and Economic Planning) Report, it is the main agenda-making body for the daily conversation of the population. This being so, the reader of the newspaper does well to be alert and on his guard (which is not the same as being cynical).

He needs to know what kind of a thing a newspaper, his newspaper, aims to be; how it comes into existence every day, and what financial arrangements enable it to survive from year to year; he needs to understand the different character of its assorted ingredients, to distinguish sharply between an editorial and a news-story and a feature-article (particularly when the paper itself tends to blur these distinctions); he needs to be able to tell a stunt from a cause, a thought from a wheeze, a fact from hearsay; he needs to be able to detect cant or

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sincerity, exploration or evasion, in the very style of the words used; particularly, for this is fundamental, he needs to be constantly alert to when he is being treated with respect or with condescension.

It may be, of course, that the average person would rather give up reading the newspaper altogether than submit himself to so disciplined a regime. Assuming a less drastic reaction, however, it seems incontestible that the regime ought to begin early rather than late. People make their first contact with the theoretically adult newspaper long before they are themselves adult : it lies about the house, it absorbs many hours per week of parental attention, it contains children's features; and even the grown-up features are most often painfully intelligible, being written (according to the best prescription) for people with the mental age of twelve years.

For these and other reasons, it is now generally accepted that the newspaper is an object for classroom appraisal, both at school and in their adolescent and adult education. And the kind of work one has in mind is not the formal lesson or the set description, nor again is it the cautionary sermon; it is rather through analytical discussion, analytical in both the intellectual and the practical scissor-chopping senses, that the distinctions and contrasts and discriminations indicated above can be brought out.

## Of chalk and cheese

OF all kinds of classroom material, the newspaper is the easiest to obtain and the most satisfying to destroy. This process of taking the paper apart can take various forms which will bring out the different aspects of the matter suggested earlier. To begin with, there is the question of what kind of thing a newspaper is, and here the most successful method is to work with one newspaper, preferably the most familiar.

It is best, if possible, to have a few copies of the same issue; the class can then break up into smaller groups, each with two copies (since the pages are printed on either side) and with numerous scissors or paper-knives. The groups begin by cutting the paper up into its individual items and classifying them into separate piles; one pile of news stories, another of pictures, a third of advertisements, and so on.

When they come to compare their bundles, the groups will find, in all probability, marked differences; the number of bundles per group and the items they included will vary, and in attempting to justify their classifications, to explain why one bundle contains all political matter, whatever its nature, or why another bundle lumps together crossword puzzles and cookery recipes — something of the paper's diversity will become apparent. Also the groups will find themselves reading out and analysing extracts, in order to decide their classification, which can be instructive as well as amusing; (one recollects that reading out extracts from the newspaper in a flat incredulous voice, was one of Will Rogers' most celebrated comic turns).

Having dissected a single newspaper in this fashion, the groups go on to do the same with a number of different newspapers (for the same day, of course). Everyone knows, in a general way, that one paper is to another like classroom chalk to over-ripe cheese, but they may not have realised clearly that this difference is as much one of purpose as of content. The groups' bundles will now differ in size and number, one paper giving more space to advertisments, and another more to pictures etc., while a third may include features that are not found in the others (such as an Astrology column or a political cartoon.) They will differ in literary style, in quality of paper, in size of type. And, most intriguing of all, their treatment of the same raw material will vary enormously; identical episodes will be found to have encouraged feats of gargantuan imagination, and the lilies in one will be weeds in another.

## What interests the editor?

A later stage of this exercise, which can well include papers of different nationalities as well, is for the groups to try to arrange their bundles of contents into what would seem to be this or that Editor's scale of priorities. Which parts of his paper seem to interest the Editor the most, and which interest him least? When the groups come to discuss these Editorial Contrasts (which they would do well to have summarized in some way) they will learn a good deal about their newspaper's view of its public, its sense of mission, its relations with advertiser of party or some other lobby, for they will have to decide why kinds and items of news are treated by editors as being of such variable importance and even why news as such is seemingly so inconsistent a product.

In these ways, the chopping up of the daily paper proves a stimulating and instructive occupation. By this means one can learn empirically a great deal about the press as an institution and about the technicalities of newspaper production and make-up. The essential queries and cautions raise themselves, and the groups soon discover the respects in which they can trust their newspapers and rely on their judgment. They will develop, unconsciously, a selective attitude to what they read and an ability to remember all the time that there may be another version of this story, even that the truth may lie elsewhere. They will have become, or be on the way to becoming, interested and critical, rather than indolent and naive, readers.

Lest this kind of work should seem negative and merely destructive (though that would be the teacher's fault, and not the fault of the method), it should be added that this work should be accompanied by the class assembling its own wall-newspapers from its many piles and bundles. This will be a genuine cross-section of the press, taking reports and features on the same topic, contrasting similar kinds of story and this not in a mood of superior cynicism but in order to put together a more rounded version of the facts.

At the same time, the class may care to set its thoughts in order by working out a blue-print of its own ideal newspaper or journal (for just the same kind of work can be carried out on weeklies as well as dailies). What should it contain, and in what proportions? To whom should it appeal, and how? A test of the earlier analytical work would be an ability to give responsible answers to these constructive problems.

**DISSECTING THE NEWSPAPER** in the classroom, in the practical scissor-chopping sense, is followed by a classification of the cuttings and an analysis of their content. Comparison of story treatment in several papers teaches children to be interested and critical, rather than indolent and naive readers. Cuttings then form "copy" for class wall newspapers. Instead of "taking the paper apart", the class can produce its own newspaper. Here, a group of "editors" are hard at work preparing their next issue. (Photos copyright Henry Grant and Magnum Photos.

But here a word of warning is needed. Many schools produce their own newspapers, setting up editorial offices and enrolling reporters who rapidly become the curse of everyone's lives. This kind of activity is valuable only so long as it does not become a mere aping of the less attractive features of the newspaper business. Much that goes into a paper had better be left out; in tone, appeal, language, and moral assumptions, it is reprehensible or at least trifling. Juvenile reproductions of such features as these are no part of an educational process, and are simply an encouragement (yet one more) to vulgarity and irresponsibility.

For the business of the world's news is a serious matter that vitally affects the minds of men. It is said that we get the press as well as the government, that we deserve. Whatever may be our deserts, however, we undoubtedly need the best today.

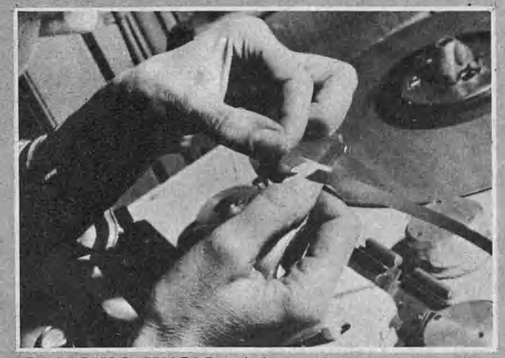
# Concrete Music

by Pierre Schaeffer

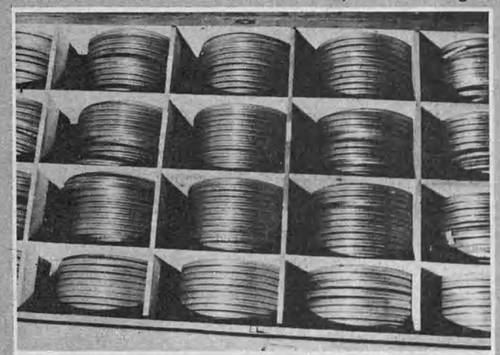
SPECIALISTS in sound techniques, composers and film makers from many parts of the world will meet in Cannes, in April, for a series of discussions on "Music and Film", in conjunction with the International Film Festival. In a "Music and Film" Exhibition prepared by Unesco, a special place will be devoted to new sound techniques in music and in particular to "Musique Concrète" (concrete music) a new form of sound creation in which composition and experiments are taking place in a number of countries, particularly France, Germany, the United States and Canada. The first experiments which were to lead to concrete music were begun in 1948 by a young French scientist, Pierre Schaeffer, who now directs a French group experimenting with this new music.

(All photos by Kitrosser, Paris)

**PRESTIDIGITATOR:** This instrument makes it possible to modify the form of tape-recorded sound by changing the speeds, thus raising or lowering the pitch of the original sound and greatly altering its tone quality. Even more radical changes can be brought about by reversing the tape in the machine.



**SPLICING MUSIC:** Like an instrument maker seeking the right tone, the composer experiments with his sound material on tape recordings.



**A LIBRARY OF SOUND:** The sounds of everyday life have been captured, modified in a variety of ways and now await the composer's choice.

**RAW MATERIAL:** Everything that can be heard is potential material. A drop of water makes a sound akin to a musical note. A spinning plate creates a sound "phrase".

**THE SYMBOLIC EAR:** Shaped like a concha, the anatomical term for the outer ear, this instrument transmits concrete music to the concert hall audience.

ELECTRONIC music, music created by lines drawn on film, concrete music—these are three new and astonishing kinds of musical creation which are being explored today. And their muse should perhaps be re-named "Tapesichore", for all of them, despite their different processes and methods, rely on a basic material—film—which brings them on common ground with the cinema.

Concrete music, for example, uses magnetic tape, which is similar to the sound track of a film, for recording and recomposing its sounds. Its bars are traced by the scissors of the cutter who splices the different sections of tape. The sound itself is modified by phonogenic apparatus which by running the tape at greater or lesser speed, can raise or lower the pitch of the original sound and greatly alter its tone quality.

Thus the tonality of the music comes not from normal musical scales but from the whole universe of sound. The composer choses "concrete" sounds, those already existing in everyday life. From these raw materials an infinite variety of other sounds can be created so that identities are changed—a bell can become an oboe, a squeaking door is transformed into the sound of a violin, boogie-woogie into African tam-tam music.

Composers of electronic music work differently. They compose their sounds in the abstract, since before the invention of the loud-speaker, these sounds did not exist in the atmosphere, but were confined to electronic circuits. Unlike composers of concrete music, they make no use of pre-recorded sound. Instead the cunningly contrived components of this music are produced behind the glass of electronic tubes.

Then, there is the work of that interesting figure, the artist musician who "draws" sound, and, throwing harmony to the winds, jots down sound in its own frequency, rhythm and approximate tone on the sound track of a film. The aim of men like Norman MacLaren, of Canada, eliminating at one stroke the *conservatoire* and all its instruments, is to blaze a sound track right over the film image.

What a wealth of methods we have here, all of them astonishingly prolific. And what a remarkable achievement all their different resources have been aimed at—the direct handling of sound colour. Here, sound ceases to be a fleeting thing; it is printed permanently on magnetic tape, and like movement itself, miraculously fixed on film. It can be speeded up, slowed down, superimposed, contrasted, or its rhythm made irregular.

How should we regard all these new forms of musical exploration? The answer lies in a remark made by Professor Gunther Bialas of the Detmold Higher School of Music, during a heated debate broadcast by Munich radio. Faced by a group of musicians who could see nothing in all these novelties but formless

# Unusual experiments with usual and unusual sounds

noise, artistic decadence or even perversion of taste, he declared: "Who nowadays denies the infinite artistic possibilities of the cinema? Well, just as the film at the beginning, before it had acquired its own personal form of expression, was hardly more than filmed theatre, so electronic music, which was confined at first to the reproduction of existing sound forms, is only now, with the research work of Pierre Schaeffer, Pierre Henry and Doctor Meyer-Eppler, beginning to create an entirely new musical material."

I should explain how I personally came across this possibility of creating new musical material. In 1948, at the Experimental Studio of the Radiodiffusion Française, I was carrying out research on noises. The idea of a "Symphony of noise" haunted me, but I could not then see how to achieve it, and the word "symphony" at that stage did not seem to make any sense at all. For nothing is more realistic, more anecdotal and less musical than noise. Noise, the blind man's radar, calls things by their name. It is directly associated with objects one sees. Its emotional value lies in the effective associations it arouses: evening bells, birds at dawn, sirens in a port.

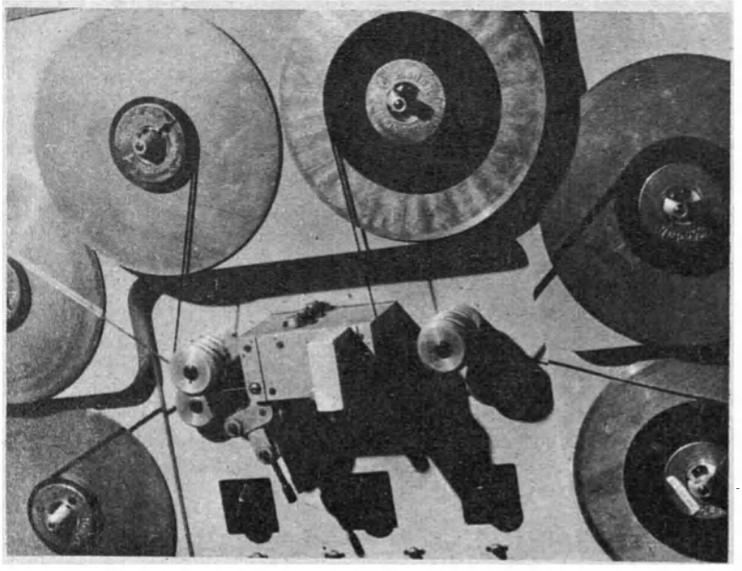
A symphony composed of such noises would take us into the theatre rather than the concert hall. And yet the gulf between a dramatic repertory of this kind and a piano keyboard or an orchestral score, attracted me. How could I bridge it? As often happens, I hit upon the solution by accident. It was to abandon the complete noises, which were simply too expressive, and keep only fragments of them, and then to modify these fragments by all sorts of acoustic methods. A mass of sound objects thus came into being, quite unrecognizable, as remote from precise dramatic meaning as from musical structure.

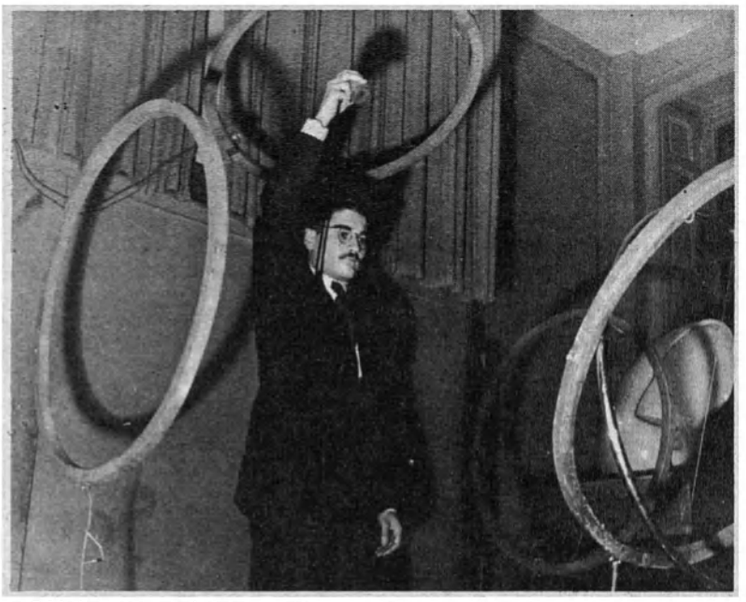
## Composition in reverse

THESE "sound combinations", isolated crystals of sound, that could be transformed, repeated, superimposed, became the complex "notes" of a generalized music. They also formed a language of their own, but instead of an alphabet of twelve recognizable sounds, there emerged what seemed like a profusion of Chinese characters. It was no good trying to make any sense of it in familiar musical terms, without immediately generalizing our ideas of notes, structure and musical form.

Thus the steps of composition took an opposite form to that of the usual notation, followed by execution. We began by sampling the sound material, and then composed, by a series of attempts, in the same way as a painter or a sculptor, who can only work single-mindedly through his intuitions of matter and

TRIO IN TAPES : A magnetic tape recorder with multiple tracks enables three tapes to be run simultaneously, thus creating a counterpoint in individual sound materials whose combined effects can then be recorded. This might very well be called the "organ" of concrete music.





SOUND IN RELIEF : The orchestra conductor's baton is replaced by a magnetic coil which regulates the flow "in relief" of sound from several ear-shaped loudspeakers.

mass, and cannot assess the result until he has laid on his colour or his clay. That was when the name "concrete music" came to my mind.

The absolute parallel between concrete music and the cinema can easily be seen. Of course, a film director has an idea to work on and an exact method of cutting at his disposal. Indeed, if he has not thought in terms of pictures, both as regards his inspiration and the landmarks, and if he has not seen his film beforehand, no scenario, and no production will save him. The film exists beforehand in his mind, as it does in the images fixed by the camera. A film is, therefore the very opposite of an abstraction ; it creates an absolutely specific world—that of a concrete language which borrows all its words from the real object, all its syntax from the continuity, and all its architecture from the sequences as a whole.

Although these ideas are more or less accepted nowadays, many enquiring and cultured minds are, nevertheless, disconcerted by the special technique of concrete music, and by the word itself. Our pursuit of sound upsets them ; our huge sound-filing system exasperates them ; composition based on cutting, instead of on a score in G, leaves them quite bewildered.

Unlike musicians who are conservative and easily shocked, artists of a plastic, dramatic or visual tradition and temperament are very amenable to concrete music and approach it with lively interest and a natural instinct. Painters are delighted to discover formal equivalences, stage designers to find a sound atmosphere discreetly and effectively in harmony with their sets. What might have been no more than a sort of realistic din, is adjusted, its tone is heightened.

## Film makers were first

AS for the cinema, it might well be said that this is the sort of music it has been dreaming of for years. Film makers did not wait for us before producing noises in the sound track that conveyed more than any cello could do. In *A man walks in the city*, to mention only one example, a "sound loop" accompanies the last sequence unforgettably. By prolonged repetition, a succession of street noises, suggestive enough in itself, is made into a "sound phrase". This phrase never loses touch with reality, yet is detached from it, like the theme of a symphony.

In this way Orson Welles, Bunuel and many others have for years successfully sketched out their own natural concrete music. Max de Haas, in Holland, Enrico Fulchignoni for *"Leonardo da Vinci"*, Allegret for special effects, Grémillon for a poetic montage on a theme of Astrology, Jean Rough in order to reconstruct hundreds of feet of sound with the help of a few African fragments—these were the first film-makers to join our team in its early stages.

Now, a technique, tested for nearly five years, offers every gradation from pure dramatic realism to abstract, plastic sound. From now on, concrete music makes it possible to incorporate into the image its sound accompaniment, drawn, so to speak, as Eve was from Adam, out of its own substance.

World Health Day April 7

# A century of progress since the 'lady with the lamp'

UNTIL 1854, when Florence Nightingale, lamp in hand, passed among the dying in the terrible military hospitals of the Crimea, it was universally assumed that the only qualification needed for taking care of the sick was to be a woman. Training schools for nurses were then non-existent.

But the "Lady with the Lamp" as first the suffering soldiers in Scutari, and later, the whole world came to know her, understood that for such work the loving heart was not enough. The art of caring for the sick, the knowledge of the laws of life and death, she said, were matters of "sufficient importance and difficulty to require learning by experience and careful inquiry, just as much as any other art".

Her courage, effort and selfless example were such that a completely new conception of nursing and of nurses was born, and by the time she died in 1910, the transformation had been so great that in the United States alone there were already over 1,000 training schools for nurses.

The celebration of the Florence Nightingale Centenary in 1954 has inspired the choice of the theme "The Nurse, Pioneer of Health" for World Health Day on April 7 — an annual observance, marking the constitution of the World Health Organization (WHO) as one of the United Nations Specialized Agencies, in 1948.

Thus, while paying tribute to the great pioneer of the nursing profession the occasion will underline the importance of the nurse and of the practice of nursing in its many forms in helping the peoples of the world toward the goal of complete health.

The need for nurses is immense. Hospitals, with their multiple and varied services for both in- and out-patients, must be staffed. Nurses are needed in the armed forces, in colonial services, in penal institutions, in land, sea and air transport, in homes for old people and for cripples, and in almost every kind of institution. Moreover nurses must be widely available

# NURSES OF TODAY: SILJA IN THE NORTHLAND; KARIMA ON THE NILE

to give home care, a need which is multiplied wherever there is any widespread epidemic or endemic disease. And all this still represents only a fraction of the total numbers required.

Within the last 60 years nurses have been increasingly occupied with health protection. It was in the fight against infant mortality that the public health nurse scored her first victories by going right into the home to instruct the mother in the care of her baby and to persuade her to take it to the doctor at the baby-clinic.

Wherever she is, the nurse prepares and completes the doctor's work. Both in her role as hospital nurse and outside the hospital she must win the esteem and appreciation of the people she works among. Her work is unending and her knowledge has to be all-embracing. It is not enough for her to be nurse — she must also be housewife, teacher and guide.

According to recent estimate there are some 1,250,000 nurses in the world. But if there were enough to meet all needs there would be nearly 6,000,000 of them. In the more fortunate areas it is estimated that there is one professionally-trained nurse to every three hundred of the population. But in some countries the ratio is about one to one hundred thousand.

In many places there is an acute shortage of qualified teachers to train nurses. The WHO has attempted more and more to assist governments to overcome this problem.

Among other activities, WHO has started to train local nursing instructors in many places. WHO teams assigned to demonstration and training centres in maternal and child health and in the control of tuberculosis and venereal diseases are helping to train "on the job" local nursing personnel for auxiliary services with the centres. Of the 144 international nurses now employed in WHO field programmes, 54 are working in schools of nursing and 90 in field demonstration and training centres.

## Ailing children and stubborn old men

JUST how important nursing work is in the life of a community can perhaps best be explained by the story of the daily work of two of the world's nurses — Silja, in Lapland, and Karima, in Egypt.

Silja Laaksonen is one of Finland's 852 public health nurses. Aged 23, she was trained at Helsinki, worked in a hospital and then went north to Lapland because she preferred the greater freedom of public health work. Today she watches over the health of a community of woodsmen and reindeer farmers around Isokyla, 80 miles north of the Arctic Circle.

Because of the climate she dresses in ski clothes and often travels by sled, but once she enters a home her work is much the same as that of a nurse anywhere in the world — giving injections and medicines on the doctor's orders, checking the health of schoolchildren, helping mothers to solve the problems of feeding and caring for their babies, pursuading stubborn old men to follow the doctor's orders.

Her work is often arduous for in her part of Lapland there are only three hours of daylight during the winter, and she has to travel in sub-zero temperatures to visit her patients in the tiny scattered villages. But she does not regret her choice. In Finland nurses are well paid, well housed and their work is recognized by the whole community.

Karima Shaaban, the Egyptian nurse, is 21 years old. She trained at the Kasr El Aini Hospital in Cairo and was recently assigned to the Tuberculosis Demonstration and Training Centre in Bab-el-Sharia where a World Health Organization team is demonstrating T. B. control methods.

She takes a different job each month, doing BCG vaccinations one month, keeping records in the clinic another, travelling with the mobile unit that circulates through the streets doing X-rays another, covering the entire T.B. control programme.

Karima, however, is a rarity even in modern Egypt, for until recently women in many Mediterranean countries led sheltered and segregated lives. But attitudes are changing and women are becoming doctors, teachers, secretaries and nurses. Karima's family is a good example of the new attitude toward the rights and duties of women. Her father is a modest farmer in the Nile Delta, but he allows his family to live in Cairo so that the children can go to good secondary schools and receive professional training. Karima's two sisters are already school teachers and her brother will also enter the profession.

Whether they are in Lapland or Cairo, or anywhere else in the world, whether at the bedside, in the operating theatre, in the clinic, the school or the home, nurses of today, like Silja and Karima, are the friends and counsellors of all, and teachers in a world crusade toward better health.

## By Sled and Station-Waggon

Silja's day starts early. She reaches remote patients by reindeer sled. The farmer brings her "taxi" to the door. At other times she may go on skis, by bus or on foot. A station-waggon takes Karima through the narrow streets of Bab-el-Sharia to the homes of her patients. Tuberculosis is prevalent in this populous part of Cairo.

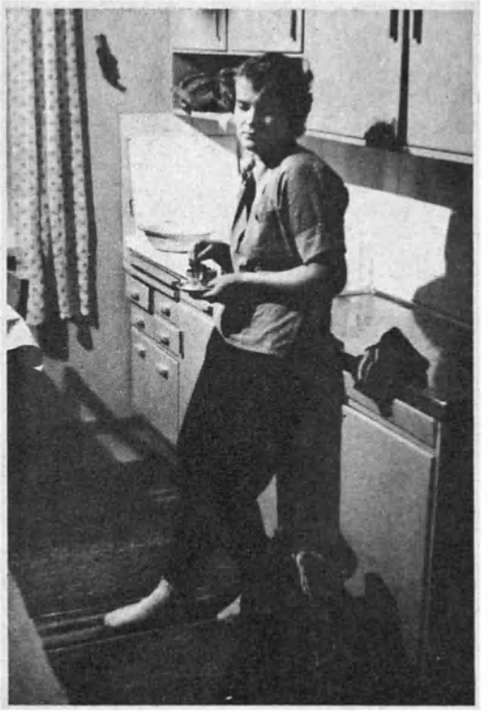
*(Photo story WHO.)*

## Health Begins in the Home

As public health nurse for the community Silja spends much of her time in the homes of the farmers and woodsmen of Isokyla. Here she has stopped to give an anti-diptheria injection to the youngest child and to check the health cards of the others. When Karima visits tuberculosis sufferers in Cairo she teaches people how to take care of their sick and how to prevent the spread of infection to the rest of the family.

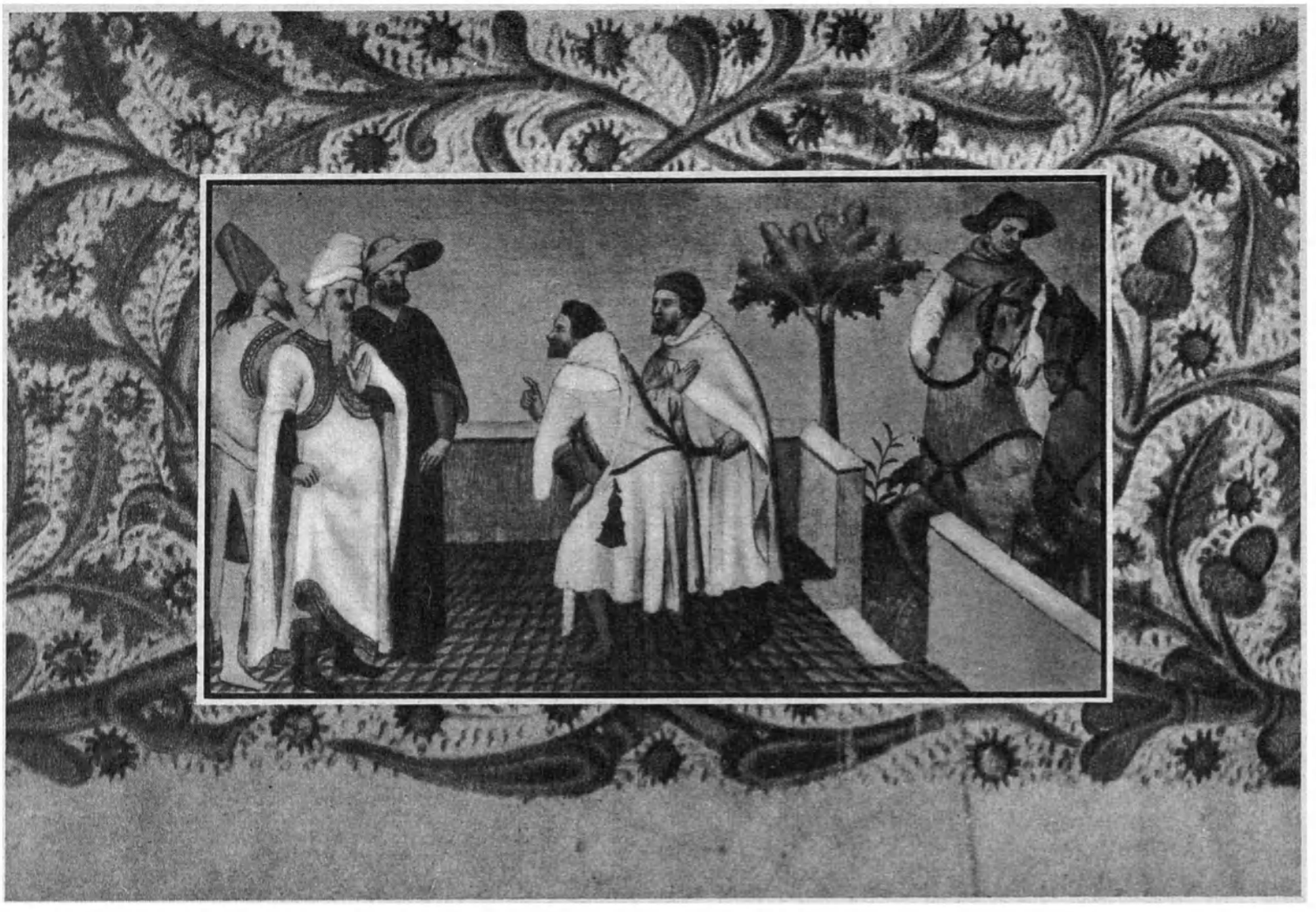
## Emergency aid; TB prevention

Prompt first aid to prevent infection of a cut arm is given by Silja to a reindeer farmer whose home she called at on her rounds. The colourful costume is traditional and all reindeer farmers wear it. At the TB Training and Demonstration Centre in Cairo, Karima does a different job each month so as to learn all aspects of tuberculosis prevention and detection. Here she gives a BCG injection to one of her patients.



## The End of a Nurse's Day

Silja's day is long and tiring. When she finally comes home at night her first move is to kick off her boots and brew herself a cup of coffee. By the time Karima returns from the clinic each day her family have already finished eating, but wait for her to have their coffee. Here Karima serves her mother and young brother with the traditional "café turc".



# Marco Polo

## *A 13th Century Globe-Trotting Businessman*

by José de Benito

On September 8, 1298, in Dalmatian waters not far from the island of Curzola, a large Venetian squadron was routed by warships of the Genoese navy. Fortune had turned her back on the "Serenissima", and all but twelve of her ships were captured or sunk. Among the prisoners, was a Venetian nobleman called "Il Milione".

His rank was of little avail to him on this occasion; in the struggle waged between the merchant Republics for control of the Mediterranean waters — the great commercial highway to the riches of the East — prisoners were held so that they might later be exchanged should fortune luck desert a one-time victorious force. So, after the battle of Curzola, our distinguished prisoner found himself confined to a Genoese dungeon, in the enforced companionship of a learned man from Pisa, a prisoner from an earlier encounter between the fleets of Pisa and Genoa.

During the endless hours of imprisonment, the two men exchanged ideas and confidences; and while Rustichello of Pisa listened in rapt attention, "Milione", whose life had included twenty-five years of travel in the unknown lands of the Great Khan, told his fellow prisoner about those exotic places, so often on the lips of Italian merchants and seamen, but about which hardly any reliable information was to be had.

After hearing his companion's story, Rustichello, whose pen flowed easily and who was a good speaker and writer of French, wrote a book in that language, entitled "The Book of Ser Marco Polo, the Venetian, concerning the kingdoms and marvels of the East".

And so appeared the Book of Marco Polo, for that was Milione's real name. This year the world will celebrate the seventh centenary of his birth — a well-deserved honour, for that story, written, like "Don Quixote", in a prison, started such a wave of curiosity that in a very short time copies and translations of Rustichello's manuscript appeared in French, Italian, Venetian, Catalan, Castilian, Irish and German.

It was thanks to the trustworthy and detailed accounts of Marco Polo's travels that the cartographers of Charles V of France were able to trace the map of Asia into their famous "Catalan Atlas", embodying in it a great deal of new information. But in addition —and this is of supreme importance in the history of civilization—the news about the wealth of Asia and its trade in spices was certainly a most powerful factor in inciting the Portuguese to launch their great voyages of discovery, and in encouraging Christopher Colombus to plan and carry out the

great adventure which was to lead to the opening up of a new continent...

Thus, as Marco Polo's words flowed on between the four bare walls of that Genoese prison, a new historical era was born. The centre of world interest began to shift from the Mediterranean, sailed by Greek and Phoenician vessels centuries before Christ, to the Ocean, that "dark sea" of the ancients, which has now become a bridge between the old peoples of Europe and the new nations of the Americas.

But who was Marco Polo? Born in Venice in 1254, he was the son of Nicolo Polo, who, with his elder brother Marco and his other brother Matteo, ran an important business at Constantinople with a branch at Soldaja (Crimea), from which they traded with the East. Marco Polo was barely seven when his father and his uncle Matteo decided to make a business trip into the heart of Asia. They set out from Soldaja in 1261, and their journey lasted 8 years. In 1269, they returned bearing gifts from the great Kublai Khan to the Sovereign Pontiff of Christianity, and a request that the latter should send to China several masters of the liberal arts who could also bring the religion of Christ to Kublai's subjects. The Holy See was vacant at the time, owing to the death of Clement IV, and it was not to be filled for three years.

Marco, who was by now nearly fifteen, was thrilled by the stories told by his father and his uncle Matteo and begged to be allowed to accompany them on their second journey to the East. The brothers agreed, but as they were unwilling to set off again for China without meeting the Great Khan's requests, they spent two years in Venice, waiting for the election of a Pope and making careful preparations for the new expedition.

In 1271, Teobaldo Visconti da Piacenza was at St. John Lateran on a visit to the Holy Sites; and at this juncture the Conclave, as a way out of its difficulties, elected him Pope. This choice of one who, though of noble Italian origin, was but a simple Archdeacon from Liège, came as a shock to the whole of Christendom. But while many dignitaries were still plunged in stupor, the active Polo brothers—good business men and well aware of the value of time—made their way to St. John Lateran and obtained from the new Pope (Gregory X, later called by the people "Gregory the Blessed"), letters and presents for Kublai Khan, who was a descendant of Ghengiz Khan. The Pope went so far as to appoint two priests to accompany them; the priests, however, were dismayed by the possible perils of the venture and judged it more prudent to remain behind.

*A GREAT ADVENTURE begins for the young Marco Polo as he sets off from Venice on his journey among the "kingdoms and marvels of the East". These old engravings showing the departure of Nicolo and Matteo Polo, Marco's father and uncle, and Marco himself, are taken from the de Mandeville "Livre des Merveilles", now in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris.*

Everything was now in order; and in 1271 Marco, Nicolo and Matteo Polo set out from the port of Lajazzo on the Eastern Mediterranean. They were not to return until 25 years later — in 1296. Ramusio, one of Marco Polo's biographers, tells us that on their return to Venice, where nobody remembered them after such a long absence, the Polos gave a great banquet in their old family mansion. As soon as the guests were assembled in the reception rooms, the travellers made their appearance to the amazement of all present dressed in Tartar fashion, in clumsy tunics of rough cloth. Shortly afterwards they retired, to reappear in sumptuous silk tunics and dalmatics embroidered with gold; and before the sensation created had passed, they went out once more and changed into yet far richer raiment.

To increase the effect of prosperity, the servants now wore the luxurious garments which the travellers had cast off. Amidst general expectation of yet more marvels, the three Polos tore up the ragged clothes they had first worn, and took from them the jewels and precious stones which they had sewn inside them in order not to arouse the greed of people encountered on their journey home.

After this resounding return the Polos were received everywhere in Venetian society. They settled down in their house, which people began to call the "Milione house" — a double allusion to the "millions" owned by its proprietors and to Marco's second name, Emilio, the diminutive of which was "Emilione". Marco himself entered Venetian political life, married, and was elected a Member of the Grand Council.

As already mentioned, he was taken prisoner during the battle of Curzola, and spent a considerable time in exile and enforced rest — a compensation, perhaps, for his 25 years of constant activity. He died at an advanced age, in his own country.

Marco Polo's was by far the most extensive trip ever made up to that time. Many would hesitate, even today, before undertaking such a journey. Harsh climates, the risk of illness, and the dangers of the road across huge and lonely steppes (including the possibility of encounters with bands of desert robbers) would make it, even now, an adventurous trip.

The tremendous effect which the story of these travels must have produced on the minds of contemporary readers, and indeed on people living in the XIVth and XVth centuries can be imagined.

Yet Marco Polo, with a modesty rare in adventurers, hardly puts himself into the picture at all; his is a strictly objective and realistic account of the countries he visited, or of those about which, without having been there himself, he had reliable sources of information. The absence of the fictitious element—lack of fantasy—invests his story with unique power and authenticity, and makes it a monument of geographical and commercial information.

In a time like his, when there was much commercial movement and competition to open new routes for Venetian, Genoese, Pisan, Catalan and Florentine trade his story was to pave the way for every sort of project and ambition, to foster every dream of adventure in mediaeval man.

The Belgian historian, J. Pirenne, summing up Marco Polo's description of the Chinese economy, says: "In Northern China, coal deposits (as yet unknown to the rest of the world) had been discovered; Hang-Chow, the largest city of the universe and China's most flourishing port, was the anchorage for powerful fleets, equipped by the Empire, which sailed as far as the Indian Archipelago. In the commercial cities, business men rich as kings were grouped into corporations. Peking was the centre of the silk trade in the North; Chung-Tu was the concentration point for all the export trade to Central Asia; Nanking and Su-Chow manufactured cloth of gold; Yang Chow was the rice market; Hang-Chow was the sugar market and simultaneously the most important centre of international commerce; Fu-Chow and Chin-Chew controlled the traffic in spices and pearls, as well as the imports from India. Navigation was so intense that for every one ship loaded with pepper which sailed from India to Alexandria, at least one hundred anchored at Chin-Chew.

This was the Mongol emperor's time of greatest splendour. The shades of Ghengiz Khan, the conqueror of Asia who had been so great a threat to Europe, still hung over the Eastern world, with memories of the terrible massacres that his hordes had perpetrated among the Chinese peoples accustomed to the enlightened authority of the Sing dynasty. And Kublai Khan had made good use of that terror so as to impose order in all his vast dominions. How else could the Polos have wandered for 25 years over the remotest of areas without mishap?

Successive chapters of the Book of Marco Polo describe Turkestan, Lesser and Greater Armenia (from Anatolia to the Caucasus); the kingdoms of Mosul, Baghdad, Tauris and the Khanate of Persia up to Ormuz; Mongolia, China, India and Siberia; the seven thousand islands of Japan; South East Asia, including Cochinchina and Annam; the islands of Java and Sumatra (or Little Java), the Malay Peninsula and Ceylon; Arabia, Abyssinia, the East African coast, and Madagascar; and finally, Trebizond and Constantinople.

The opportunity of visiting many of these countries came to Marco Polo when, as he was taking his leave to return to Venice, Kublai Khan requested him to accompany a princess belonging to his family and the Court, who was going to marry Arghun Khan in Persia and whose cumbersome baggage forced her to travel by sea.

Today, Italy is preparing to celebrate the seventh centenary of the birth of this great traveller and narrator; and the world will echo Italy's homage. Unesco is to share in the honouring of a man who did much to encourage scientific investigation and the love of travel, by publishing new translations, in English and French, of "The Book of Ser Marco Polo, the Venetian, concerning the kingdoms and marvels of the East".

UNESCO
ARCHIVES

# Kabylia

## *Youth volunteers at work in the land of the Berbers*

**by Pierre Martin**

*When a small group of international volunteers set out for a Berber village in the mountains of Kabylia some time ago, their principal aim was to lend a hand with the construction of a badly needed pipe-line to bring water to a new school. But the problems of illiteracy, health and hygiene they found there soon caused them to organize a fundamental education campaign for the benefit of the villagers. The experience of these volunteers from the Service Civil International organization is typical of many other work camp volunteers, more than 5,000 of whom have come from far-off lands to work in some 300 camps set up by the work camp movement which is sponsored by Unesco. Swinging picks and shovels, building, repairing and nursing, these young men and women have brought help and hope to people with whom and for whom they were working in economically under-developed areas in all parts of the world. Teams have tackled many kinds of jobs including agriculture, forestry, public health, literacy, home crafts, recreation and social welfare. Here, M. Pierre Martin, a French teacher, describes the experiences of the group which went to a Kabyle village in the mountains of Algeria. M. Martin is one of the pioneering volunteers of the Service Civil International organization in North Africa. He is the author of* En Kabylie, dans les tranchées de la paix, *a book about the first international work camp to be organized in Algeria.*

WE made our camp in a magnificent natural amphitheatre in the mountains, a tremendous escarpment, rising almost vertically to a height of 3,000 feet, dwarfing the three tents which were to be our "home" for the next few months. There were twelve of us, nine young men and three girls, and some had come from places as far away as New York and Norway to this isolated but strikingly beautiful spot in the Kabyle mountains of Algeria.

There was Stephen, a Swiss teacher; Milo, an electrician from the South of France; Joe, a psychology student from New York; Oddvar, a Norwegian farmer; Adber, a Kabyle who had just finished studying in Algiers; Ali, a young Arab mason; Philippe, a Moroccan student of architecture; Jean, a mechanic from France; and myself, an ethnographer from Paris. We all lived in the largest tent.

In the second tent, the girls—Mady, an English chemist, Claartje, a teacher of physical education from the Netherlands, and Sylvette, a Parisian typist—had spread out their sleeping-bags among the rucksacks and cooking utensils. The third tent contained our tools and food and, since the night when the jackals had grown bold enough to come and devour our provisions, one of us had always slept in that tent. That was the camp.

To reach it from the plains below was a minor Odyssey, and even those of us who had come the longest distances to Algeria agreed that the last few miles seemed longer than all the rest of the journey put together.

I shall always remember my five-hour climb up to the camp after fetching supplies, as we did twice a week, from the village of the Wadhias, with my rucksack weighing thirty or forty pounds, filled with food, medical supplies, letters and hardware.

On the first part of the path there was not a scrap of shade anywhere; then, at a height of about fifteen hundred feet, the path ran into the mountain-side through a cleft, offering the first oasis of shade in which to take a rest.

The path continued through a scene of tremendous grandeur, following a sort of gigantic stairway half way up the defile. By steps or steep slopes, I would go on climbing for hours until, at a turning point, I would catch sight of the camp tents in a meadow down below.

When we first arrived we seemed to be far from any sort of habitation. But when our eyes had become accustomed to the surrounding countryside, we could make out three villages in the vicinity of our camp. Their drab colour merging with the nearby rocks, they seemed to be cowering on the slopes as if trying to hide themselves.

### Image of Bethlehem

A CLOSER inspection revealed that each of the village huts consisted of a single, windowless room in which grown-ups, animals and children were crowded together. Yet these Kabyle huts were surprisingly clean and the presence of the domestic animals—in the most exact sense of the term—brought to mind an image of the stable in Bethlehem. There were no chimneys. Cooking was done over a wood fire in one corner of the room and the smoke escaped through the door.

The Kabyles of the Kuriets are Berbers who, though they live less than a hundred miles from Algiers, a completely Europeanized town, have remained quite untouched by Western civilization.

A mountain people, poor, but proud, they live by stock-rearing and small-scale farming. Their village life is quiet and law-abiding, but they are not above an occasional act of brigandage when they follow their flocks up to the high pastures at an altitude of over six thousand feet, far removed from the constraints of the law.

The day after we arrived we made a start on the job we had come to do. Until now there had been no school anywhere in the district of the Kuriets, and the French Administration, in agreement with the village chiefs, had decided to build one at Tinessouine, the centre of an area where there are about ten thousand people living. As there was no source of drinking water available at the school site it was necessary to canalize the waters of a spring and pipe them over a distance of some seven thousand, eight hundred feet through the rocks and meadows. This was to be our concern.

In such cases, the Administration requires the people of the district to contribute about twenty per cent of the cost of the work; when (as is almost always the case) the community is poor, the contribution is paid in communal labour. As the Amin (spiritual and civil head) of Tinessouine had too few men to carry out the work in the specified time, he had asked for help from our Service Civil International team.

To the Amin, the idea that people should come in this way from different countries to do voluntary work simply as a gesture of international solidarity was perfectly acceptable, but the same could not be said of the other people

of the district. Their imaginative minds invented all sorts of explanations: we were deported prisoners, or the scheme was a Machiavellan plot on the part of the Administration to plant spies in their villages, or... Every day brought a new story.

But the trench was already spreading in a long dark groove along the slope of the Jurjura and, working side by side, making the same efforts and sharing the same satisfaction when the rock broke under the sledgehammer blows, the men of the villages began to lose the mistrust they had shown at the outset. A feeling of comradeship born of a common effort took its place.

The children, too, became friendly and were always close at hand when our girls went about their domestic tasks. Soon they were eagerly taking part in the simple educational leisure-time occupations which were organized for them. Sylvette showed the girls how to mend their dresses while Claartje taught them to count with the help of a set of dominos, made on the spot by burning marks on little blocks of wood. Mady would be called upon to look after those who had hurt themselves or to give some treatment to the rare cases of sickness in this healthy region. People would even bring their babies to her without fear that her infidel eye might cast a spell over them.

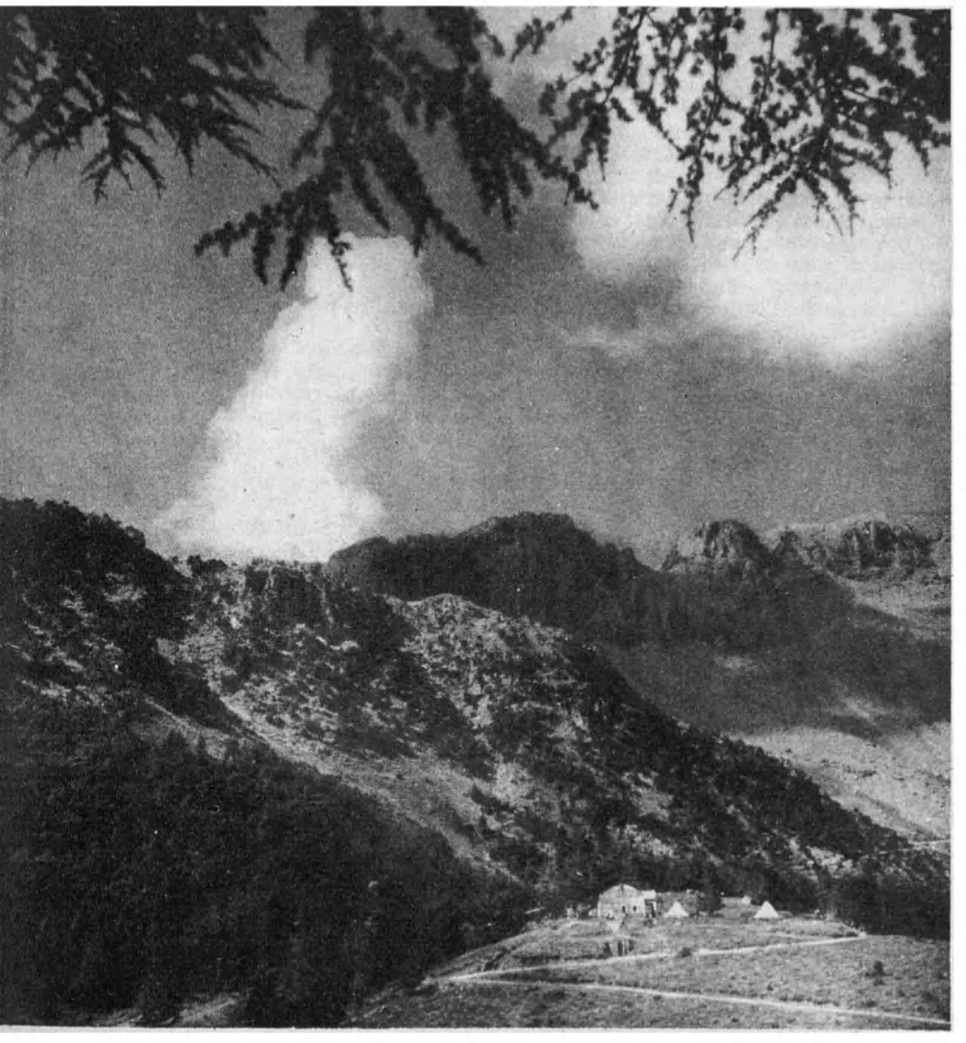
The trench grew steadily longer and the people, seeing what we had done, and now reassured that our presence did not interfere with their customs, began to show more trust.

One evening, when we got back from work, we came upon an unexpected scene; Sylvette had organized a real class; about twenty children were sitting in front of her under an ash tree and reading out in chorus the name of their village which she had written on a big sheet of paper. They were enormously proud ; time and time again they read us the word.

Their fathers, who were bringing the tools back to the camp, watched these children's games with superior smiles and went off without saying anything. But the next evening, three of them came to ask us to teach them to write their names. "Why do you want to write your name?" One of them explained: "To sign at the post-office; when there is money to be collected or a registered letter, we have to take along two witnesses, but if I can sign my name, I shall not need to pay the witnesses." "And do you often get letters like that?" "Sometimes, from my son in France."

When we considered the educational value of these activities we realized that the so-called "side lines" of the work camp had imperceptibly become our main interest. We went steadily on with our digging; but in the evening, instead of resting under the mosquito net, we were all caught up in the fever of fundamental education. Some of us helped Mady with her sick nursing; others seconded Sylvette or Claartje in the evening writing class—theoretically for adults; Milo and Jean tried out on the brook a new sluice arrangement for irrigation.

**THE KABYLE MOUNTAINS** where the team of volunteers from the Service Civil International pitched its camp, are the highest in Algeria, and are snow covered for several months each year. The team came to help lay a village water supply pipe-line, but soon found itself spontaneously carrying out a programme of fundamental education for the villagers.



## Work camp 'side lines'

THEN, suddenly, we began to have some doubts about the usefulness of what we were doing. Not about our main job, for that was straightforward. Once it was finished, the pipe would bring drinking water to a fountain for the use of both men and animals, and, later, for the school.

Our doubts were about the "side lines" of the work camp. After we had left the area would the men remember the rudiments of writing we had taught them? And of what use would it be to the women to have learnt to mend, once we were no longer there to give them needles and thread, should their menfolk be unwilling to buy these?

It was Mady who cleared these doubts from our minds by reminding us that the rudiments of fundamental education had tremendously increased the effectiveness of our work with pick and shovel, and that all elements of basic education must go together. "It is a good thing to bring drinking water within people's reach, but it's even better to teach them at the same time what soap is for. Water should mean more to them than just something to drink; they should also learn that babies ought to be washed, and that a wound is more likely to heal if it is washed in clean water instead of being smeared with dung", she said.

## A new thirst aroused

FINALLY, the great day arrived when the first gush of water came from the new fountain. Our original task was accomplished. But as we packed our kit and said goodbye to the villagers we reflected that although water was now flowing in abundance at Tinessouine, there was another thirst to be slaked, the thirst for knowledge that we had aroused in the people.

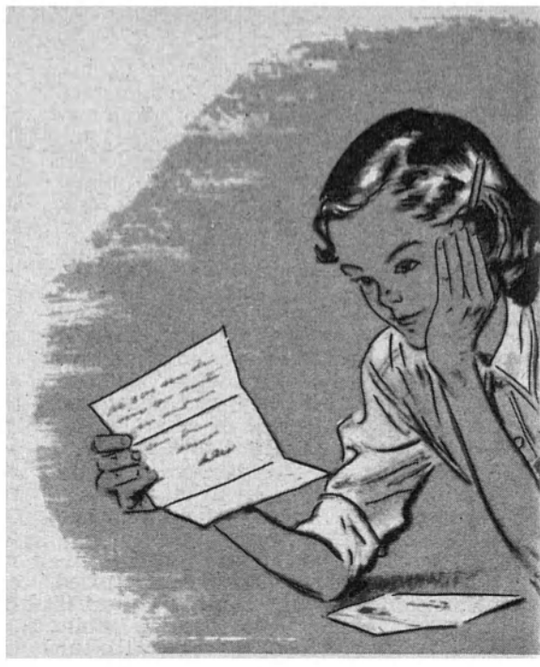
The children's education is assured by the new school that has been built. But the problem of bringing literacy and fundamental education to the adults still remains. It is of little use expecting even literate young people to accomplish much in villages where the authority of an older and completely illiterate generation exists.

If, each time we broke up a work camp, we knew that we had been acting as precursors, gaining the confidence of the people and preparing the ground for educators to complete the task, we should take our leave of them with much easier minds.

# A letter to Jennifer

## in which a father tells his 13-year-old American daughter about Unesco

**Herbert J. Abraham**



*THE average man in the street would be hard put to give a reply if he were asked "What is Unesco and what is it trying to do?" The same question would probably draw a complete blank from most children throughout the world. The fact is that school lessons on the United Nations and its specialized agencies like Unesco are still few and far between. Here, an American father, Mr. Herbert Abraham, has taken the bull by the horns and set forth his personal reply to his small daughter, Jennifer, in the form of a letter. To help Jennifer understand Unesco's work and objectives better, her father has naturally linked them directly with examples in American history she has studied in school. We present this interesting effort with the knowledge that parents in other countries who may wish to follow Mr. Abraham's example, will have little difficulty in finding other examples, just as striking and as numerous in their own country's history. "A Letter to Jennifer" was originally published in the National Education Association Journal, United States.*

You asked once, what is Unesco? I said it was part of the United Nations. I said that the UN means that countries get together and help each other. They help each other if one of them is attacked by an enemy, and they help one another to settle quarrels sensibly and fairly, and they help one another to look after hungry children and to get better doctors and to farm their lands better and to get better schools. Unesco is the part of the United Nations in which countries especially help one another to get better schools.

I didn't tell you much more about Unesco then, because I didn't know how to explain it so that you would understand it.

Of course, you know one or two things more about Unesco now than when you asked the question, because we have since lived in Paris. You know that I worked for Unesco in the old building on Avenue Kleber and that quite a lot of people from different countries worked there, like our friend from Iraq with his wife from Lebanon, and the young man from Holland, and the Frenchman who thought American schools were wonderful because children can have real discussions with their teachers.

Now, here you are back in the United States, and you have been learning eighth-grade American history. Here is something that may surprise you. *You have been learning some things about* Unesco *and all the rest of the United Nations while you have been learning the story of America.*

It's true that your history book doesn't mention Unesco, and you may wonder what I mean when I say you've been learning about Unesco in the process of learning American history. I'll try to explain what I mean.

There is a map of the world in your American history book; around the map are some pictures. One picture shows the Parliament in England with a title "representative government." There is a picture of a page of a dictionary, with a label "language." There are other pictures marked "reform," "health," "people," "art," "religion," "literature" (that's a picture of Shakespeare), "architecture" (a Greek temple), "music," "science," and "domesticated animals." The map shows arrows pointing *to* America, and the whole page is entitled "Civilization Spreads to America."

Later there's another map with arrows going *from* America, and pictures marked: "Declaration of Independence," "agricultural methods," "medical science," "new plants," "sports," "engineering," "inventions," "music," "motion pictures," and "literature" (a page of Tom Sawyer). The title of this map is: "Americans Contribute Their Civilization to the World." Get the idea?

### Two-way culture

NOW put the two ideas together. Where do we get a lot of the good things in our civilization? Where do other countries get many of the good things in their civilization? OK, so what about Unesco?

Just a minute. I'd like to change a word. The book says, "*Civilization spreads to America and Americans contribute their civilization to the world.*" I would like to substitute the word "culture" for the word "civilization." The two words have almost the same meaning, and culture has an advantage: you can't make an adjective out of civilization (except civilized) and you can make an adjective from culture.

I want to write a sentence with the word "cultural." Here it is: "Cultural exchange has been good for America and for all other countries." That is an idea you have learned just by learning the true story of America.

Well, that American-history idea is also a Unesco idea. All the countries in Unesco—more than 60 countries—have the same idea, "Let's help one another learn *about* one another and *from* one another; let's have more cultural exchange." So they put the "cultural" right into the name of Unesco.

(Of course, Unesco is a made-up word. It is made up of the initials in the words in Unesco's real name "United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.")

It's interesting how the countries help one another to have more "cultural interchange." They help artists, musicians, and writers from different countries to get together and exchange ideas. They give scholarships so that people can go to other countries to study. They make catalogues of reproductions of famous paintings that people can buy.

That gives you an idea of what Unesco does to help "cultural exchange." There is a lot more you could learn about it, but you have learned the main idea already—from American history.

Another American-history fact I noticed in your book was that people from many different countries learned to know each other and to live peaceably together in the United States. For example, there is a page of pictures of men with many different national origins who fought bravely side by side in the American army in the last world war. You know that people came to America from all over Europe and somehow learned to get along with one another. They discovered they didn't have to hate and fight one another.

This is Unesco's idea, too. The countries in Unesco are saying, "Let's help our people get to know each other better, and also let us learn how to live peacefully all over the world."

Unesco is tied in with the story of American economic development, too. Do you remember this sentence, "Power-driven machines begin an industrial revolution"? Here are some more words and phrases that mean quite a lot to you, now that you have studied American

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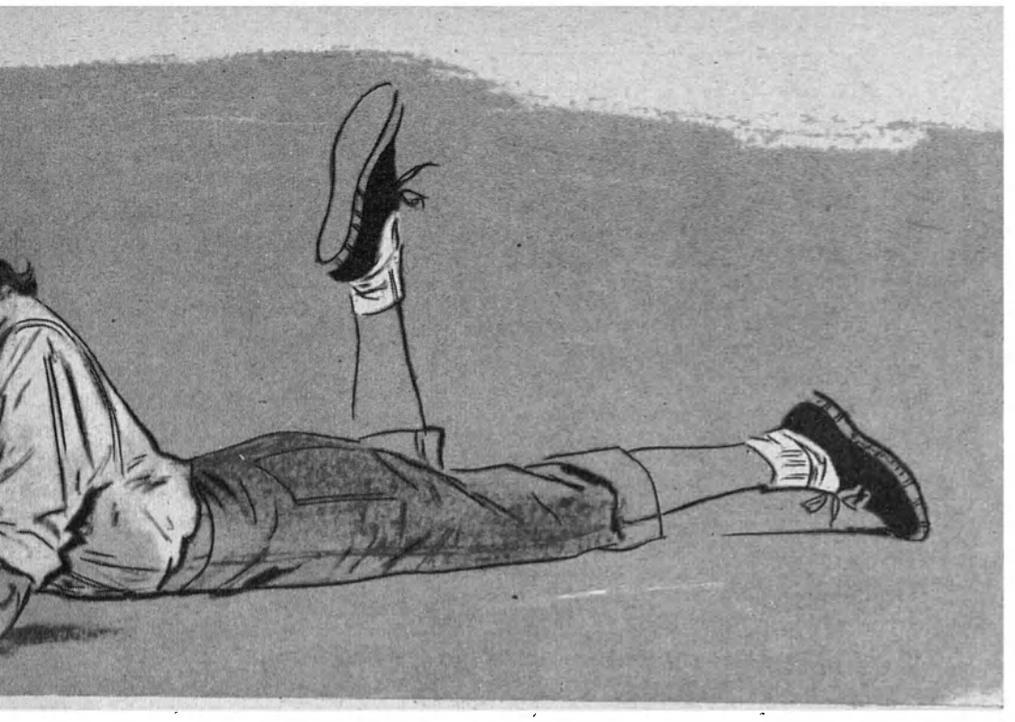
**Dr. Abraham** *is a member of the Unesco Relations Staff of the US National Commission for Unesco, US State Department.*



history. They are all in the American-history book: interchangeable parts; mass production; transportation and communication link the oceans; science and machinery multiply the production of food; machines make the peoples of the world more dependent upon each other...

You understand now that the world today is different in many ways from what is was when the American colonies got their freedom. You have learned that the world has shrunk, tho' it is still the same old 25,000 miles around. Today it is like one big community where we all depend on one another.

Knowing this, you can understand quite a number of things Unesco is doing. For one thing you can see that we shall be in a mess unless a lot of people in many countries learn about the great technical and economic changes that have taken place. People can't act very sensibly to solve problems together if they don't understand what kind of world they live in.

And this poses quite a question for teachers all over the world: Are they really helping their pupils learn what kind of world we live in, and how it got that way?

## Chopsticks for the teacher

TO help teachers do a better job, Unesco organizes meetings for them —summer schools—where they can trade ideas. Do you remember the Hindu gentleman who came to see us in Paris? When our maid went in the garden and cut somes sticks, you asked her why, and she said, "I'm making chopsticks for the Indian gentleman." He was a teacher who was attending one of the Unesco summer schools, along with teachers from Mexico, USA, England, Belgium, Japan, and other countries. Incidentally, letting people talk things over freely and trade ideas is quite an old idea forAmericans—look up what your textbook says about the Bill of Rights and how "democracy is government by discussion."

Another thing about Unesco and the industrial revolution—remember that scientists were behind all those inventions, how agricultural scientists found out how to grow more crops.

"Help the scientists learn from each other," says Unesco, "and help everyone else learn from the scientists." Unesco helps the scientists organize international meetings and publish magazines in which they let other scientists know the new things they have learned —or what problems they are working on.

The more the scientists know, the more puzzling questions they find they don't know the answers to, about the infinitely big universe and the infinitesimally small atom and everything in between. Even tho' America has a lot of the best scientists, places for research, and equipment, we still want to learn from scientists in other countries.

Of course, the people in very poor countries are especially eager to learn more science, so Unesco helps them to learn it. There is a piece in your history book that explains this: how Japan was "backward" and saw the manufactured articles which Perry brought, and decided it must learn western science and technology.

All those countries that have become free and independent in recent years, like India, Pakistan, and Indonesia—they want to learn science, and that means training thousands of scientists, and getting equipment and so on. Unesco helps them by sending out experts to train them and advise them. This kind of help is called "technical assistance."

One important problem (it's really hundreds of scientific problems, I suppose) is whether people can possibly turn dry, barren lands into good fertile lands. Millions of people around the world live in dry lands. American history tells us that scientists were able to help our farmers by finding out what the soil consists of, and what crops grow better in some soils, and how to use water resources more effectively. Unesco is putting that idea to work for the "arid zone," by helping scientists do the research and keep in touch with each other.

I have told you about the "cultural" and "scientific" parts of Unesco's work. Next comes the "educational." But it's fairly obvious, isn't it, now that you know some American history?

What did the Americans do when they first started settling the lands in the Northwest Territory? They set aside one section in every township for schools. What was the big thing Horace Mann did? Introduce good ways for training teachers. What do Americans think every child should have? Equality of educational opportunity. America has tried to give every child the chance to get all the education he can profit from.

Today, all over the world countries are saying, "We, too, must educate all our people." What a job! Half the people in the world can't read or write. In some countries, 70 % or 80 % never get into a school. But these people in lands that have been "underdeveloped" so long are now saying, "We can never be really free and able to rule ourselves or get rid of starvation and pestilence, unless all our people go to school." The countries in Unesco believe they should help one another to learn.

## Models for the world

UNESCO doesn't build schools, tho'; it doesn't have the money. Besides, each country is responsible for its own education and must do most of the work itself. But Unesco does send experts to various countries to help train their teachers, and advises them how to set up good public-school systems.

It helps to set up "model" training centres. There's one in Mexico and one in Egypt. Experienced teachers come from many countries, learn how to train others, and then set up teacher-educating centres in their own country. Many of the young teachers have had no more schooling than you have, because their countries haven't been able to afford higher education for them, and teachers have been needed so desperately.

Another big thing in education is libraries. Your history book tells you how Andrew Carnegie became a millionaire and then used a lot of his money to build public libraries where everyone can borrow books.

When I was a boy in England, we had a library near us called the Andrew Carnegie Public Library, and I learned that a wealthy American had made this library possible for us.

Well, all the countries that are building schools need libraries too. Unesco is acting a little bit like Andrew Carnegie, tho' it isn't a millionaire. For example, it is helping India set up a "model" library.

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I HOPE you have a good idea now why we have Unesco and what it does. If we were having a class discussion, you could ask questions and I would try to answer them. I can think of one or two questions you might ask.

For example, is Unesco a kind of government? No—Unesco is an organization which countries belong to and pay dues to, and it does what its member countries want it to do.

You might ask, what do we pay? That is decided each year. This year the budget was about nine million dollars, and the dues of the USA were about one third of that (because we are so much the wealthiest country). That means USA pays something like three million dollars a year—which costs each taxpayer less than the price of one candy bar.

I should remind you that Unesco is just one part of the UN. Other parts are doing the things I mentioned in the beginning, and all the parts help each other. I suppose all the work of all parts of the UN costs *me* less than a dollar a year. That's what I pay in order to be one of the millions of people all over the world who want to help keep peace and make the world a better place.

# LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

*Sir,*

*...I wish to congratulate you on your extremely good issue of* The Courier *on languages, the contents of which are of a concise and constructive vein... I note that no mention is made of the Bilingualism movement in the article suggesting possible solutions for facilitating understanding between peoples. But perhaps you intend to treat this subject fully at a later date...*

**Jean-Marie Bressand**

**Le Monde Bilingue,**
**Paris, France.**

*Sir,*

*I have read with great interest your issue on languages and particularly liked your article on old languages finding new jobs... Don't you think it is Unesco's job (international understanding) to oppose or at least to discourage the mushroom growth of languages and alphabets which are no longer deemed useful? It is scandalous, for example, that there is no protest when one of the great world languages is replaced by an archaic dialect known only to a few scholars or when a new alphabet is suddenly created. The "graphic" heritage of mankind is rich enough today, so why increase it?...*

*I am surprised to find only a brief timid mention of international languages in your issue. You seem to have felt obliged to mention Esperanto "which has the advantage of an undoubted head start over its rivals". What do you mean? That it is older? Volapuk was well known when Esperanto was born. A bigger following? No, since Volapuk again was once spoken by two million people, a figure higher than that achieved by any international language since. But what are the "rival" languages whose names you so discreetly omit? Apart from Esperanto which is split into two rival groups there are only two with a comparable following:* 1) *Ido, an improved form of Esperanto... which has constantly declined since the first World War;* 2) *Interlingue, whose organization was destroyed in the last war but which has been reorganized since and is now making great strides. This has been achieved despite a press campaign of silence which I note with regret you also follow... That Interlingue is simpler and more scientific than Esperanto and Ido is undeniable...*

**O. Jacob**

**Union Pedagogie Interlinguiste,**
**Pavillon, France.**

*Sir,*

*I was very interested in the January number of* The Courier (No. 1, 1954), *which is devoted to the language problem in international relations...*

*I note, however, that the solution presented by the international language, Esperanto, is barely touched on... On the 2nd of August,* 1950, *a petition in favour of Esperanto was presented to the United Nations. The petition was signed by* 895,432 *individuals and* 492 *organizations with a total membership of* 15,454,780. *Among those who signed it were the President of a republic, several ministers of State, more than* 400 *members of parliaments, more than* 1,500 *philologists and professors of languages, approximately* 2,000 *scientists and university professors,* 40,000 *teachers, etc. The petition was then handed over to Unesco as the competent body on this question. The General Conference of Unesco which took place in Paris towards the end of* 1952, *decided unanimously to commission the Director-General to communicate the petition to member states and "to undertake... the necessary preparatory work to enable the General Conference to decide, at its Eighth Session, upon the action to be taken on this petition". Our age, which is one of highly developed technology, tends to put its faith in the ability of machines—even of translating machines—rather than in the power of the human spirit. May I therefore, in this sphere at least, put the spirit before the machine.*

**Prof. I. Lapenna**

**Hon. Director,**
**Centro de Esploroj**
**Kaj Dokumentado,**
**London.**

*Sir,*

*I read* The Courier *and am very interested in the work of Unesco. But I am very sorry you have to write in English, French and Spanish. This must mean a great waste of time and effort. I think it would be a big advantage for you to use one international planned language instead or three national ones. Such a language already exists: Ido.*

**Hans Brismark**

**Hoting Sweden.**

*Sir,*

*In your issue of November* 1953 *devoted to Human Rights you published an article entitled "They Challenged Slavery to Free Men in Chains" in which you say at one point "slavery is everywhere abolished". I do not agree, for here in the Cameroons at least slavery is far from abolished. It is not uncommon to find African women being sold and bought.*

*The publication of your article coincides with a report sent to the Anti-Slavery Society in Paris by H.E. Monseigneur Lefebvre, Archbishop of Dakar and Papal Delegate. Mgr. Lefebvre considers that slavery undoubtedly exists in Africa... everywhere that polygamy is practised. In addition the Archbishop denounces the custom of the "dowry" as another offshoot of slavery since the dowry has lost its symbolic significance and has become simply the purchase of a human being. In the Cameroons, the cupidity of parents sometimes leads them to demand an American truck in exchange for a young girl. The sum of money asked for usually exceeds* 100,000 *francs (over £* 100 *or $* 280). *In courts of common law and other tribunals the most frequent cases are disputes about women to settle the following question: "To whom does this woman belong?". If a woman does indeed have an owner it must be admitted that a certain form of slavery does exist.*

*According to a Cameroons custom a woman is, in fact, never her own mistress. If her husband dies she becomes the property of her husband's heir who marries her automatically. There are, it is true, certain decrees... which seek to put an end to abuses regarding widows and to ensure self-determination for young girls. In practice these decrees are not enforced and instead a decree passed in May* 1934 *regulating indigenous marriages is still applied. This decree states quite clearly: "The death of the husband does not bring about* ipso facto *the rupture of the conjugal tie".*

*I repeat, therefore, that slavery still exists in Africa and is a flourishing, concern. The trading in women has probably never produced so much wealth as in our own time.*

**Father Pierre Pichon**

**Catholic Mission, Yaoundé,**
**The Cameroons.**

*Sir,*

*I should like to inform you that we have purchased* 500 *copies of the December* 1953 *issue of* The Courier, *which are being distributed to the Directors of Secondary Schools throughout Spain and to many normal school and higher education teachers. I wish to congratulate you on the high quality of your atomic energy issue and assure you that we consider* The Courier *a valuable vehicle for bringing the ideas of international co-operation to the Spanish teaching profession.*

*Yours faithfully,*

**C. Lacalle**

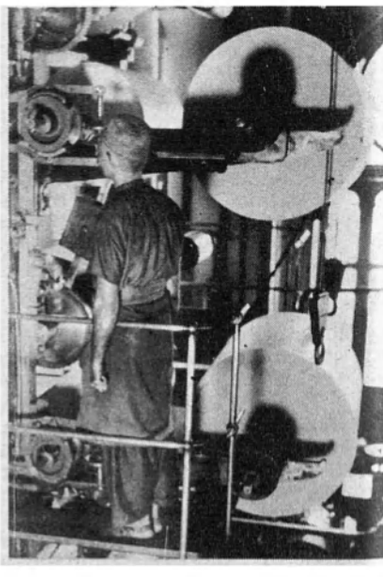
**Ibero-American Office of**
**Education, Institute of**
**Hispanic Culture,**
**Madrid, Spain.**

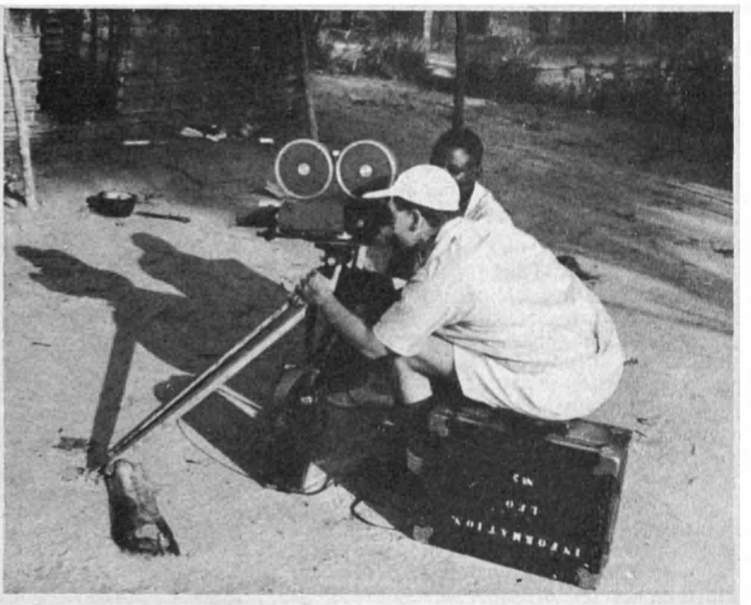
**FIFTY YEARS OF CHANGE** in methods and equipment for collecting the news is reflected in these two photographs. But though news took longer to girdle the earth in 1904, it certainly met fewer political obstacles in its path than it does today.

# FREEDOM OF THE PRESS AND NEWS CENSORSHIP

*(Continued from page 8)*

**MILES OF NEWSPAPER** are represented by these reels of newsprint which are about to become "The Times of India", in the modern rotary presses of this Bombay daily. A full reel of newsprint contains something like five and a half miles of paper. (Photo copyright "Times of India".)





by the American States early in 1945. Even before the war ended, however, editors in the United States of America had begun to interest themselves in the freer flow of information, and their efforts eventually inspired the drafting of the Convention on the Gathering and International Transmission of News adopted by the Geneva Conference on Freedom of Information. And censorship, as one of the obstacles preventing "peoples speaking to peoples" was studied by the American Commission on Freedom of the Press in a 1946 report.

The problem of censorship was extensively discussed at the Geneva Conference on Freedom of Information, the representative of France summing up a general feeling that there should be "total abolition of censorship, but if maintained in certain countries it should be so organized as to permit journalists to carry out their functions in a rational manner".

The conference then proceeded to include in the Convention on the Gathering and International Transmission of News an article containing a positive injunction against censorship of outgoing dispatches, with the provision that Contracting States could make and enforce regulations "relating directly to the maintenance of national military security". The article added that if it were necessary to impose censorship in peacetime, it should be carried out under certain stipulated conditions aimed at facilitating the work of foreign correspondents. These conditions remained substantially the same in later redrafts of the Convention and appear in the text eventually adopted by the General Assembly.

## Abuse of freedom

THE Economic and Social Council at its seventh session decided that the concept of "national military security" was too restrictive and employed the words "national security". However, the General Assembly considered that the Council's language was too broad and reverted to a narrower expression, "relating directly to national defence".

What action is possible to alleviate, if not abolish peacetime consorship? First of all, an earnest effort must be made to rescue the convention articles relating to the international transmission of news, which have been approved by the General Assembly, from their state of suspended animation and to have them opened for signature. This should be possible when work on the draft Convention on Freedom of Information is completed.

Even in countries where the concept of freedom of information is accepted, restrictive measures have in many instances been imposed ostensibly for the protection of the common interest. This fact makes it all the more necessary to safeguard this freedom against encroachment and attempts to curtail, cripple or even destroy it by legislative or administrative measures.

On the other hand, the misuse or abuse of this freedom may constitute a serious threat both to the community as a whole and to individual citizens, and unless the law provides sufficient means of protective action and redress, the private citizen is left without defence against the powerful organs of information.

It follows that the problem here, as with human liberty in general, is to regulate this freedom without destroying it. Though a great variety of systems are conceivable for this purpose, two main trends can be distinguished. Countries committed to the principle of freedom of information are moving along similar lines and have adopted legislation which, while differing in details, has the same starting point and seeks the same results. On the other hand, the legislation of countries where information media are regarded as having a social function which should be directly supervised by the State, moves along different lines.

Obviously, a balance must be found between the freedom to seek and disseminate information and the necessity of protecting the individual and the community as a whole against misuse of this right. Therefore most countries have promulgated legislation enabling the authorities to intervene in case of need.

In general, the publication of certain types of news endangering national security is everywhere liable to punishment; while publications offensive to good morals expose their authors to penal sanctions. Press laws almost everywhere tend to protect family life, and information likely to impede the course of justice, contempt of court and similar offences exposes the author to more or less severe penalties.

Freedom of information is constantly faced with the possibility of intervention by the State. By claiming that it is necessary to prevent the diffusion of false or distorted news, to prohibit propaganda subversive of public order or the existing system of government, to protect youthful readers, to maintain high standards of morals, to uphold religion and punish blasphemy and so on, the State can and often does intervene, and this may easily become permanent, impeding the free publication of information and opinion.

It follows that no constitutional or legal provisions as such can guarantee freedom of information unless a people's fundamental conception of society recognizes that the best government is that which allows citizens to form and express their own opinion on all matters, including the government, and unless that conception pervades the entire fabric of national life.

## A present danger

To say that every man is entitled to freedom of expression subject to consequential penalties for abuse is not enough and, indeed, may be dangerous. It is like telling a man that he may say whatever he likes, reserving to yourself the right to bash his head in if you do not agree with what he says. Restraint in the application of consequential penalties must be regarded as a vital ingredient of freedom of information.

Perhaps more than any other human right, freedom of information lends itself to extremes of abuse and repression. It is not easy to indicate precisely where freedom ends and license begins, or, even if this could be done, to indicate where license begins to be a "clear and present danger". The bewildering variety of libel laws and press laws throughout the world shows how complicated the problem and the present situation are.

Nevertheless, it is clear that such laws, together with the practices to which they have given rise, actually determine the degree of freedom of information which exists within each country, as well as the highest common denominator of freedom which is possible in the world. Therefore a detailed study of this difficult subject would be useful in showing the possibility of establishing common standards, within the framework of which a working compromise between freedom and responsibility can be achieved.

# SOME FACTS AND FIGURES

*(Continued from page 9)*

largest with 61,457,000. Oceania has a circulation of 4,504,100 copies for 14,000,000 inhabitants; while Africa has the smallest circulation, with 2,226,090 for 203,000,000 inhabitants. Three countries—United States, United Kingdom and Japan—have 53 % of the total world circulation.

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In continents where the press was developed earlier, the tendency towards concentration has become more marked with an increase in individual circulations as the number of newspapers diminishes. The most typical example of this phenomenon is found in the United Kingdom, which has the largest daily newspaper circulation per 1,000 inhabitants (611 copies per 1,000 inhabitants). Whereas the total daily newspaper circulation in the United Kingdom is 31,000,000 (more than half the circulation of all dailies in North America) there are only 122 daily newspapers. This is less than the number of daily newspapers published in Mexico (162, with a circulation of 1,300,000) or in Argentina (140, with a circulation of 1,800,000), and only slightly higher than the number of dailies appearing in Turkey (116, with a circulation of 692,700).

For the world the average circulation of daily newspapers per 1,000 inhabitants is 88. The United Kingdom has the highest average circulation figure : 611 per 1,000 inhabitants. Australia, with 416 per 1,000 inhabitants, New Zealand, with 358 per 1,000 inhabitants, and Canada with 248 per 1,000 inhabitants, are also high up on the list, which tends to prove that the evolution of the press in the Dominions follows that of the United Kingdom.

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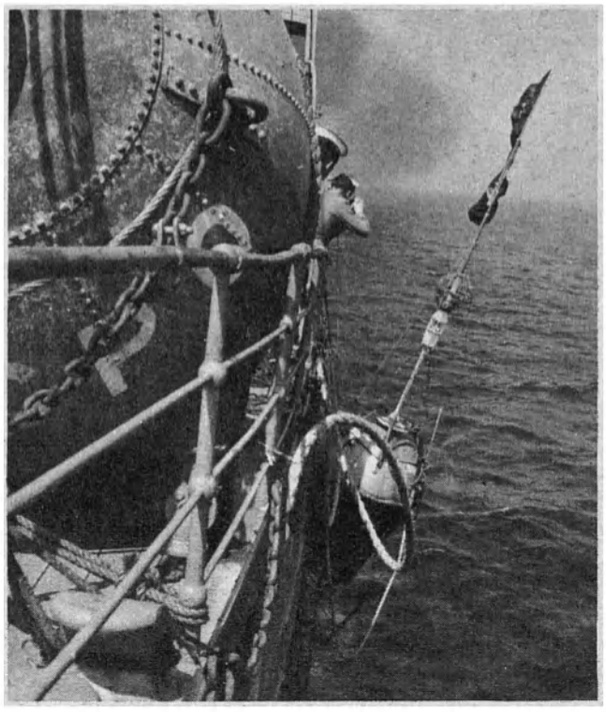
If the 7,520 daily newspapers published throughout the world are grouped according to language of publication, it is seen that more than one-quarter are printed in English. The English language press is by far the world's largest. Taking into account the lack of information about newspapers in Russian, the press in the Chinese language comes next (904 dailies), but it is far smaller than the English language press. If one considers the circulation figures for daily newspapers published in the various languages of the world the classification is, however, different.

The following tables cover both classifications :

| Language | No. of dailies | Total Circulation |
|---|---|---|
| English | 2,348 | 96,511,090 |
| Chinese | 904 | 9,112,950 |
| German | 801 | 17,312,200 |
| Spanish | 732 | 12,198,600 |
| Languages of India | 556 | — |
| Scandinavian languages | 402 | 6,616,500 |
| French | 309 | 13,875,950 |
| Portuguese | 260 | 6,166,800 |
| Japanese | 191 | 30,213,400 |
| Dutch | 138 | 4,098,800 |
| Italian | 127 | 5,609,100 |
| Turkish | 109 | — |
| Polish | — | 6,790,500 |



**RAPID TRANSMISSION** of world news started about a century ago when the first deep sea cables were laid. The first to link America with Europe was spliced in mid-Atlantic in 1858. Photo (left) shows a buoy being dropped to mark cable laid between Denmark and Great Britain in 1950. Modern newspapers receive agency press messages instantaneously by teleprinter

In radio, as in the field of press, the United States again leads with more than twice as many receiving sets per thousand of population as in any other country (620 per 1,000 inhabitants). The best figure for Europe is 300, and for Oceania 250. By comparison, the highest figure for both South America and Asia is 125; for Africa, less than 50.

Africa is worst equipped. Most African territories are non-self-governing, and to all intents and purposes the press, film and radio have been developed exclusively for the relatively small white population. Few territories have as many as one radio receiver per 1,000 inhabitants. The principal exceptions to the above figures are the French North African territories, Egypt, and the Union of South Africa.

There has been a considerable effort throughout Asia in recent years to develop broadcasting, but the average number of receivers per 1,000 inhabitants rarely exceeds five, and is in some countries less than one.

## BASIC DATA ON THE DAILY PRESS, BY CONTINENTS AND FOR THE WORLD

| Area | Estimated million population (mid 52) | % of total world population | Number of daily newspapers | % of total world number of daily newspapers | Number of morning daily newspapers | % of total world number of morning daily newspapers | Number of evening daily newspapers | % of total world number of evening daily newspapers | Total circulation of daily newspapers | % of total world circulation of daily newspapers | Average circulation per daily newspaper | Estimated number of copies of daily newspapers per 1,000 inhabitants |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Africa | 203 | 8.2 | 208 | 2.8 | 117 | 3.1 | 86 | 3.0 | 2.226.090 | 1.0 | 10.700 | 11 |
| America, North | 225 | 9.1 | 2.265 | 30.1 | 529 | 14.0 | 1.651 | 58.3 | 61.457.000 | 28.3 | 27.100 | 273 |
| America, South | 115 | 4.7 | 613 | 8.2 | 475 | 12.6 | 138 | 4.9 | 10.171.000 | 4.7 | 16.600 | 88 |
| Asia (ex. U.S.S.R.) | 1.298 | 52.8 | 2.257 | 30.0 | 1.146 | 30.4 | 290 | 10.2 | 46.587.900 | 21.4 | 20.600 | 36 |
| Europe ex. (U.S.S.R.) | 400 | 16.3 | 2.071 | 27.5 | 1.455 | 38.5 | 616 | 21.7 | 92.228.400 | 42.5 | 44.500 | 261 |
| Oceania | 14 | 0.6 | 106 | 1.4 | 52 | 1.4 | 54 | 1.9 | 4.504.100 | 2.1 | 42.500 | 322 |
| U.S.S.R. | 205 | 8.3 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| World Total | 2.460 | 100.0 | 7.520 | 100.0 | 3.774 | 100.0 | 2.835 | 100.0 | 217.174.490 | 100.0 | 28.900 | 88 |

(centre) while technical progress has now made it possible to transmit photographs by telephone across the world (right). The most industrially developed areas are well supplied with means of communication, but millions in less fortunate regions are completely uninformed about what the rest of the world is doing and thinking. (Photos COI and USIS.)

The countries of Central and South America have in general much more developed communications, though, once again, within this general area there are marked differences. Only in one or two cases are there less than twenty receiving sets per 1,000 population.

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To evaluate cinema-going facilities we may take as a unit of measurement the capacity of theatres, in terms of the number of seats per 1,000 inhabitants. Here one reservation is needed. Where the cinema-going habit is firmly established, all towns of a certain size have their permanent "picture-palaces", and it is relatively simple to collect statistics as to their capacity. But even in these countries, many villages are served by travelling projectionists who set up their apparatus once or twice a week in a local hall; and in the United States there are over two thousand "drive-in" cinemas where seating capacity cannot be calculated exactly.

In the under-developed countries, mobile projection units operating in schools, public halls, even in the open air, often serve a larger public than do the few permanent cinemas.

It is nevertheless significant that in the developed areas there are rarely less than thirty seats per 1,000 inhabitants (in several there are more than seventy) whereas, with the exception of the Middle East, there are generally less than four in Africa and Asia. There is greater activity in film production in Asia than in Africa, but exhibition facilities are less developed. The over-all average of the number of seats per 1,000 inhabitants is little above two.

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There are six world news agencies : three American (AP, INS, UP), one British (Reuters), one French (Agence France-Presse) and one Russian (TASS). In 54 countries there are today 76 national agencies which provide a daily service of local news. The list of these agencies shows that the different parts of the world are very unevenly informed of happenings in their own countries. The regions which are best off are those where the development of education has permitted a powerful press and broadcasting industry to come into existence.

In many countries, particularly in Africa, South America and Central America, the general public has to depend for news of national events on the sparse correspondents of the too often ill-equipped local newspapers. In some, such as Mexico and Egypt, they have actually to rely on foreign agencies for it. For the under-developed regions: in Africa, only four territories have national news agencies; on the whole of the American continent, outside of the United States and Canada, only five countries have national agencies; and in Asia only fifteen.

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What do these facts and figures add up to ?

First, every country in the world depends on the six world agencies for getting its national news brought to the attention of the outside world; second, every country in the world depends on the six world agencies for its supply of foreign news; and third, many of the countries which as yet do not have national agencies depend to a large extent on the world agencies for the supply even of their own national news.

The first point is a cause of understandable anxiety to many governments, which naturally resent the fact that news of their country reaches the world exclusively through a foreign enterprise. Moreover, there is a limit to the amount of news that can be carried in a day's file, with the result that news of a small country has little chance of getting into the main service unless it concerns a subject of world-wide importance or is of a sensational nature.

This leads to the second point. The fact that six agencies constitute the only source of world news does not mean that every country receives the services of all six. In fact, only Afghanistan, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, and Lebanon, with Hong Kong and Berlin, can be said actually to receive world news through all six agencies, and they account for little more than 8 per cent of the total world population.

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The effect of this situation on freedom of information is clear. The reason preventing the creation of national news agencies in all countries, or of new world agencies is essentially economic. A news agency must have clients willing to pay enough for its services to cover at least its costs of operation. The moment an agency is forced, in order to cover its cost, to accept money other than for services rendered, be it a government subsidy or a grant from any private body, its status and services tend to be regarded with suspicion.

Hence, though temporary measures, including government subsidies, may be considered practical necessities to assist in their creation, in the long run independent agencies can only exist where press and broadcasting enterprises have first been sufficiently developed.

★

What are the obstacles to development of the Press?

Foremost is the illiteracy rate. Though literacy statistics are mostly little better than estimates, it may be said in general that the commonly prevailing rate of illiteracy in Africa is between 80 and 90 per cent, and in Central and South America slightly over 50 per cent.

Nevertheless there has been in recent years a truly world-wide movement towards education, and in several regions where literacy campaigns are being carried on, it has already been found that the problem is not that of teaching the relatively simple mechanics of reading, but of ensuring a supply of reading matter for the new literates.

The second obstacle is inadequate supplies and equipment for the Press. The problem of newsprint is of such importance that a separate section of this report has been devoted to it. Less crucial, but by no means unimportant, is the question of composing and printing machinery.

Finally, there are the obstacles inherent in the economic life of a newspaper. An independent press obtains its resources in two ways : by the sale of copies and by advertising. But in the economically under-developed countries revenue from advertising is difficult to obtain, and the life of a newspaper will be precarious if it must rely largely on the sale of copies where the purchasing power of the population is low.

★

Many of the difficulties encountered in other media do not arise, or are less acute, in broadcasting, and under-developed countries wishing to expand their information facilities would do well to concentrate first on this medium. For countries with a high proportion of illiteracy the advantage of radio is obvious, and the immediacy of radio, and its relative cheapness, give it a decided advantage over the film.

★

*The facts and figures presented above were taken from the following sources : "A Report on Freedom of Information", presented by Mr. Salvador Lopez, to the U.N. Economic and Social Council; "News Agencies, their Structure and Operation", published by Unesco; and "The Daily Press", a survey of the world situation, (N° 7, December 1953 issue of Reports and Papers on Mass Communication) published by Unesco.*

# From the Unesco Newsroom...

**TRULY RURAL TEXTBOOKS:** In many countries, the differences between rural and urban life are very great, and country teachers are now urging that the manner and content of rural education be specially adapted to meet the needs of those who live by the soil. In France, for example, a recently published textbook on arithmetic used situations and objects which are familiar in the countryside. A typical problem reads: "During a drought, a farmer has to fill his water-waggon at a stream 24 minutes walk away. He needs two-and-a-half waggon loads daily. How much time will he lose in 34 days of drought?"

★ **PROTECTING CULTURE:** *A draft convention for the protection of monuments, works of art and historical documents against the risks entailed by armed conflict will be studied at a special conference to be held at the Hague Peace Palace, in April. Eighty-six countries have been invited by Unesco to send representatives with the necessary powers to sign the Convention if full agreement is reached on the text.*

**SCHOOL BY POST AND RADIO:** In France, official teaching by correspondence courses which are followed by more than 18,000 pupils has been supplemented by radio lessons thus enabling teachers to come into direct contact with their pupils. Other broadcasts explain problems of school and vocational guidance to parents.

★ **UNESCO IN SWEDEN AND DENMARK:** *Children and adults in Sweden, which has an advanced school and social aid system, recently learned a great deal about the problems of less developed countries and about the help given to these countries by the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies, during a special "Unesco Week" held in the town of Vasteras. Films, exhibitions and lectures explained how such help falls within the work of Unesco in promoting literacy, human rights and international understanding. Another "Unesco Week" is to be organized in Malmo, Sweden's third largest city. Films, special broadcasts and study groups on similar themes are the main features of a Danish "Unesco Week" being organized this month near Copenhagen, by the Danish National Commission for Unesco and Denmark's leading youth associations.*

**LEARNING BY LIVING:** A comparison of the forms community education takes in India, Mexico, Canada, Japan, Puerto Rico, the United Kingdom and the United States has been outlined by Philippine educator Pedro T. Orata, in a brochure *Community Education Abroad* published by the Unesco Philippine Educational Foundation. Community schools, according to the Philippine definition, are those where democracy as a way of life is taught through learning-living situations in which group action plays an important role. The pupils learn not only from books but also from the experiences of others how best to live usefully in their community and be good citizens.

★ **FRESHENING UP FRESCOES:** *A new technique for preserving frescoes on the walls of ancient Roman buildings has been developed by the Instituto del Restauro, in Rome. The process makes it possible to remove the pictures from the plaster walls where they are rotting and decaying with damp and exposure. A specially prepared canvas is pasted on to the wall and then peeled off and passed on to a roller. The paintings are then pasted back on to another canvas to reveal their top surface, stretched and fixed on to a suitable foundation. The new technique has been applied to frescoes representing a garden scene found in a house on a hillside just outside Rome. Through the new process, they have now been removed to the Museo Nazionale Romano, where the whole room has been reconstructed.*

**SNOW CLASSES:** Following the success of an experiment last year, girls and boys from Paris secondary schools have been sent this year to various Alpine resorts for a month of studies, sport and gymnastics. Health benefits from these free "snow classes" were so good that the Paris Municipal Council has voted the money to extend them to more children.

★ **HELPING OTHERS:** *Sweden's contribution to international co-operation and understanding was the theme of a conference of Non-Governmental Organizations held in Stockholm, and arranged by the Swedish National Commission for Unesco. Speeches and discussions dealt with many aspects of international co-operation, such as "Economic Views on International Scientific Collaboration", "Culture and Economic Development". The meeting, attended by the King of Sweden, the Prime Minister, ministers of Foreign Affairs and Education and representatives of the diplomatic corps, was addressed by Mr. Dag Hammarskjold, Secretary-General of the United Nations, and a message was read from the Director-General of Unesco.*

**EYE ON THE SKY:** Astronomers from six European countries met in Leyden, Holland, recently to discuss the co-operative construction of an observatory in the Southern Hemisphere. South Africa was suggested as a possible site, and research on atmospheric conditions is now to be made there. At present, there is no large telescope available to study the skies of the Southern Hemisphere.

★ **LESS HOMEWORK:** *A law limiting the homework of children aged from 12 to 15 to two hours each evening is to be introduced in Belgium, according to a statement made by Professor Harmel, Belgian Minister of Education. Parents' complaints about overworked children have a long history in Belgium, where each teacher in an athénée or lycée sets homework as often as he thinks fit and without regard to other subjects.*

**GOOD QUALITY T.V.:** The first international seminar for television producers and directors of educational and cultural programmes will be held in London in July by the British Broadcasting Corporation and Unesco. Main problems to be discussed include the possible dangers of television to society, the problem of mediocre programmes and the need to find a way of using television for educational and cultural purposes while meeting the demands of the mass audience.

★ **BRAZILIANS ABROAD:** *Unesco has signed an agreement with the National Campaign for the Training of Higher Specialized Personnel (CAPES), an agency of the Brazilian Ministry of Education, under which from 60 to 80 fellowships will be awarded, during the next 18 months, to Brazilian nationals. Brazilian educators, research personnel and technicians will benefit from the facilities which Unesco has developed in more than 30 countries for the reception of students from abroad and the supervision of programmes of study. This is the first agreement of this type between Unesco and a national educational agency, where international administrative services are to be utilized for fellowships financed by the Government itself for its own nationals.*

**NEWS OF THE PAST:** The history of the Jewish people against the background of world history is told exactly as though it were happening today in "Chronicles" which is published in the form of a modern daily newspaper in Jerusalem. Biblical events make striking headlines: "King Saul is dead. Falls on his sword as army collapses about him", says one, telling of the king's defeat by the Philistines. "We are leaving Egypt", says another, telling the story of the Exodus. Reports from "our own corespondents" tell of the crossing of the Red Sea and the fall of Jericho. "Chronicles" is being used in schools to teach ancient history in a particularly lively way.

## UNESCO TRAVELLERS' CHEQUES TO AID STUDENTS, TEACHERS

*A scheme aimed at overcoming currency barriers to cultural travel abroad was recently launched by Unesco when it put into circulation the first four hundred thousand dollars' worth of new "Unesco Travel Coupons". The coupons are a form of international travellers' cheque, providing the foreign exchange needed by such travellers as students, teachers and research workers when they attend educational institutions or conferences in other countries. People living in so-called "soft-currency" areas usually find it difficult to obtain the "hard-currency" of countries where they wish to study or do research work. Travel coupons will enable them to obtain dollars, Swiss francs or other currencies in exchange for the money of their own countries. Eleven countries already have agreed to participate in the new project, and other Unesco Member States are expected to join soon.*

★ **OVER 100,000 STUDENTS SEEK KNOWLEDGE ABROAD.** — *Over 100,000 students are attending universities or other centres of higher education in countries other than their own according to a world-wide survey made by Unesco. The census of the foreign student population, started last year, has been broadened into the most comprehensive survey of the field ever undertaken. The results are published in* Study Abroad *the current, sixth volume of Unesco's International Handbook of Fellowships, Scholarships and Educational Exchange, now issued in three languages, English, French and Spanish, and listing opportunities offered in all parts of the world for study abroad.*

*The survey shows that a total of 107,000 foreign students are attending 2,014 institutions in 70 countries and territories. This compares with 85,000 students in first survey in 1948. While not absolutely complete, the geographical coverage extends to institutions in all countries except Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Mongolia, Poland, Rumania and the U.S.S.R.*

*The results of the survey are presented in* Study Abroad *in four statistical tables. These give the number of foreign students in each country, and information on countries of origin and fields of study.*

*The countries with the largest numbers of foreign students are: United States (33,679), France (13,709) and the United Kingdom (8,277).*

Imp. GEORGES LANG, Paris. IMPRIMÉ EN FRANCE.

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Some themes recently studied in The Courier : The Jigsaw Pattern of the World's Languages and New Techniques in Foreign Language Teaching; Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy; Children's Art and Education; The Fraud of Racial Doctrines; Public Libraries and Education; Pushing Back the World's Desert Frontiers; TV — A Chance and a Challenge for Education; Geography Teaching and International Understanding; World Paper Famine; Cinema and International Understanding.

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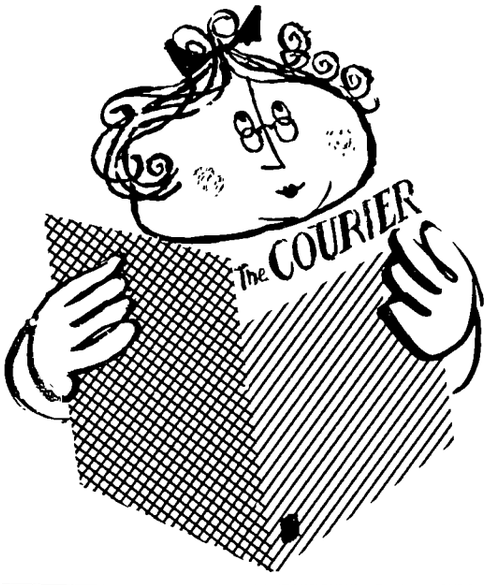

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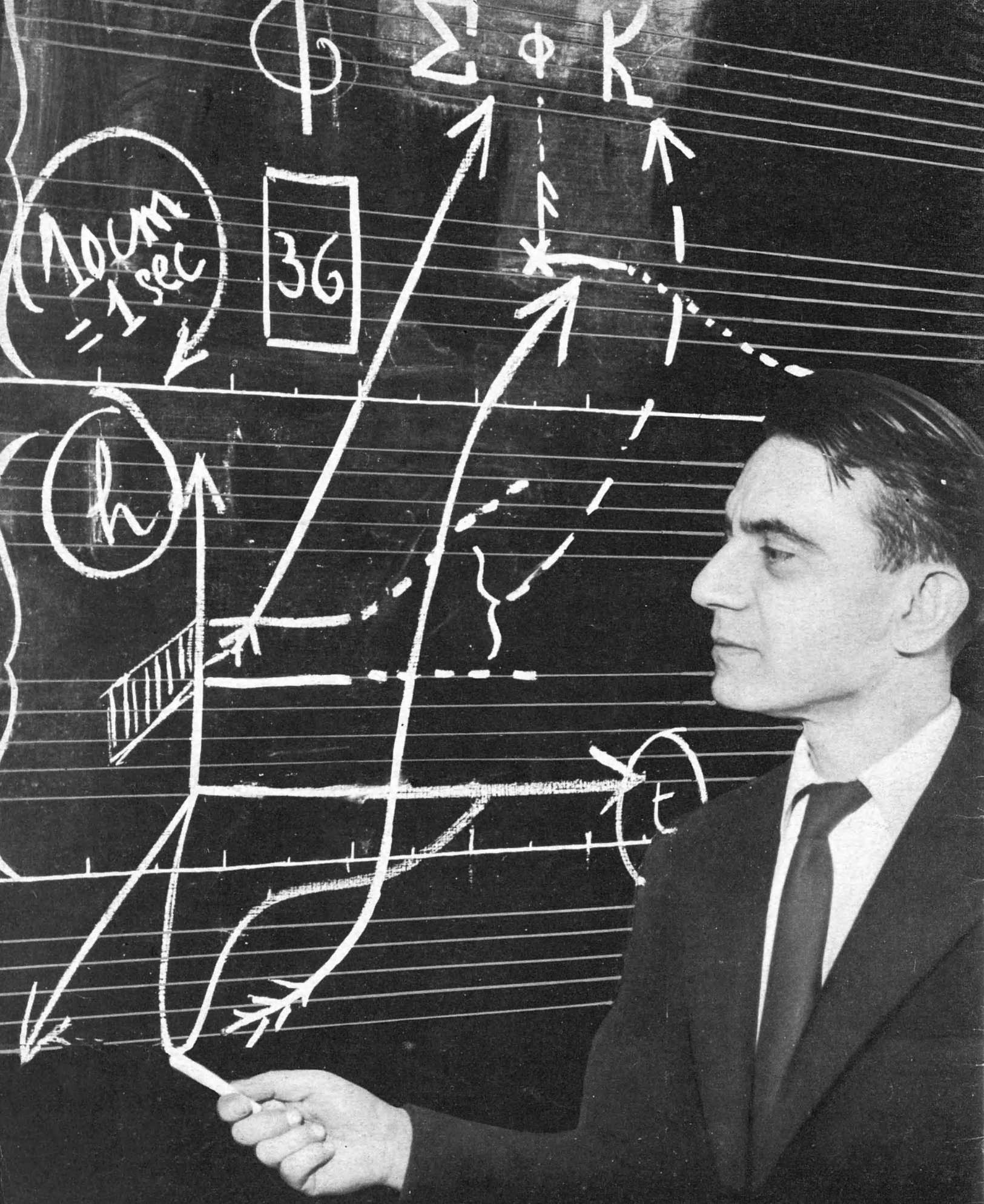

# MUSIC WITH A 'NEW LOOK'

In recent years a new type of sound creation, known as "Concrete Music" has been attracting attention in the music world. In February the BBC Third Programme gave the first broadcast in Britain of this new kind of music, and much of it is being made and heard on the European Continent. To some, Concrete Music is not music at all to others it cannot be called art. Unlike the conventional, abstract music we are used to hearing, Concrete Music uses tones derived from the whole universe of sound. In other words, the composer can choose as his sound-material anything from a man's laughter to the snap of a breaking stick or the pounding waves on the beach. He selects "concrete" sounds which exist in everyday life. Photo shows a pioneer experimenter of Concrete Music, Pierre Schaeffer, explaining the new notation system. See article on page 18. (Photo copyright Kitrosser.)